

# **Changing Profiles of Women Workers : A Study of Women Professional Workers in Lucknow City**

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C E R T I F I C A T E

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "Changing Profiles of Women Workers : A Study of Women Professional Workers in Lucknow City" has been prepared by Ms Reena Misra herself under my supervision. It is an original contribution based on the candidate's own work. The candidate has put in the required attendance, as laid down in the University Ordinances. The thesis fulfils all the conditions necessary for submission of Ph.D. thesis prescribed by the Kanpur University.

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## PREFACE

Only a small proportion of women are part of the economically active work force in India. Bulk of these women are engaged in the agricultural sector or in exploitative industries and construction. An overwhelming majority of them are illiterate receiving low wages and subject to various types of exploitation. A small but growing number of educated women are now joining the labour market particularly in urban areas. Though their economic condition is somewhat better than that of their rural counterparts, the urban women workers face a number of problems like occupational segregation, discrimination and role conflict and have a general status of subordination and inferiority. While the problem of rural women workers and women workers in the unorganised industries has received some attention of Indian scholars in the recent past, very little work has been done on the problems of the professional women workers who form a growing proportion of the countrys' work force.. The present study is a modest attempt in this direction.

The present study examines the problems of women professional workers focussing on their socio-economic and demographic characteristics, working conditions as

well as issues of discrimination, job satisfaction, role conflict and impact on status. The study is based on a primary survey of 170 female professional workers from Lucknow city, selected by the method of stratified random sampling, from the categories of scientists, doctors, degree college and university teachers, lawyers, architects and engineers, social scientists, auditors, accountants, administrative, executive and managerial workers.

In Chapter I we have discussed the problems and status of women workers as highlighted in earlier studies with reference to developed and developing countries with particular reference to India. The objectives, hypotheses and methodology of the present study are also discussed here.

Chapter II focuses on the growth and structure of urban female workers in Lucknow District.

In Chapter III we throw light on the social characteristics of the respondents, the employment and occupational status of their household members and the parental background of the respondents.

Chapter IV deals with the age, marital status and children of the respondents along with the size and structure of the family and residential characteristics of the respondents.

Chapter V focuses on asset ownership, income and expenditure levels and contribution of the respondent in household income and expenditure.

Factors motivating respondents to enter the work force, occupational history, nature of work and extent of respondents' participation in employees union activities have been discussed in Chapter VI.

In Chapter VII we focus on various parameters to gauge extent of discrimination by employers and male co-workers and also analyse the level of job satisfaction of the respondents.

Chapter VIII throws light on domestic duties of the respondents and the extent of husbands help in the same, the attitude of family members towards the respondents job and the respondents status in the household.

In Chapter IX we analyse the respondents adjustment between domestic and office work and the extent of role conflict amongst them.

In the concluding Chapter we have summarised the salient findings of our analysis and have offered suggestions for improving the conditions of professional women workers.

I am profoundly grateful and deeply indebted to my guide Prof. A.K. Singh, GIDS, Lucknow, without his immense patience, keen interest in my work and extremely valuable suggestions this work would not have been possible.

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## CHAPTER I

### Problems and Status of Women Workers : A Survey of Literature

#### I.0 Introduction

The earlier literature on development focused on structural and technological factors associated with the process of development and neglected the impact of development on different sections of the population particularly women. With increasing number of women entering the work force, particularly after the Second World War, the problems faced by them in the labour market could no longer be ignored. The 'women issue' was brought to the limelight by Ester Boserup's celebrated book Women's Role in Economic Development (Boserup, 1970) where she discussed the basic problems faced by women workers in both rural and urban areas in the developing countries and argued that centuries of women's subordination and exploitation is due to the present patriarchal system in most societies and the male biased system of land rights. Since then there has been a plethora of research work on the basic problems and issues confronted by women and their integration in the process of economic development.

Research in the area of women studies was further catalysed by the United Nations declaration of the International Women's Decade from 1975. Some notable contribution on this subject followed. Particular mention may be made in this regard of studies by Standing (1977), Youssef (1974), Blaxall and Reagan (1976), Amsden (1980) and Sokoloff (1980).

One indicator of the status of female workers is the change in their work participation rates along with economic growth and technological advancement (Standing and Sheehan, 1984; Bowen and Finegan, 1969; Standing, 1977). It has been observed that in the initial stages of development the female work participation rates decline because employment opportunities in agriculture fall resulting from technological change and mechanisation. The other sectors are unapproachable for female workers because of illiteracy and socio-cultural restraints. The situation, however, reverses when the increasing demand for labour in the fast expanding modern sector overbalances the contraction in traditional fields of employment (Durand, 1975).<sup>1</sup> Thus the pattern of employment for female workers is traced by the familiar 'U' shaped curve.

Another indicator of the economic status of female workers is their occupational pattern. The sectoral composition of the female labour-force changes with industrialisation, urbanisation and increasing educational levels. A recent study (Uma Devi, 1987) reveals that female workers in industrialised market economies are largely concentrated in the services sector (66.5 per cent) followed by the industrial sector (25.8 per cent). This pattern changes a little for industrialised centrally planned economies with an increased proportion of women workers in Industry (33.1 per cent) and a decreased proportion in services (45.4 per cent). In the developing countries, the sectoral composition of the female labour force is reversed as agriculture provides the mainstay for more than 65 per cent of women workers.

Further detailed studies of the labour market have highlighted the issues of segregation of and discrimination against women workers. It is a well documented fact that women workers typify the concepts of subjugation and inferiority both in developed and developing economies (Standing and Sheehan, 1978; Schmid and Weitzel, 1984; Davidson and Cooper, 1984; Anker and Hein, 1986).



All these studies highlight the fact that women workers have a lower status both monetarily and psychologically as compared with male workers. The basic issues confronted by women workers are sex-segregation of the labour market - where women are clustered in traditionally 'female' occupations with low level of earnings - and discrimination, both overt and subtle, in terms of large male-female earning differentials, low employment opportunities for women, women being relegated to monotonous low-skilled tasks, bias and discriminatory attitude of male counterparts, subordinates and superiors, inadequate facilities provided to women, etc.

Various theories have been propounded to explain the existence of sex inequalities and segmentation in the labour market. The neo-classicists attribute the cause for lower earnings of women to small investments in human capital made by women which leads to their low productivity (Mincer and Polachek, 1974). The dual labour market theory propounds that primary jobs are offered to men because they have greater stability and secondary jobs are relegated to women because of high turnover leading to segmentation of the market (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). The institutionalists pointed out

that sex-typing of jobs occurs because of higher unemployment amongst women (Oppenheimer, 1970). Edgeworth (1972) and Bergman (1974) explain that segmentation is the cause for lower earnings of women because they are competing amongst themselves for relatively few jobs in an overcrowded segment of the labour market. Engels (1984) puts forth a historical explanation of the relationship between development and means of production, food, rise of property, the state, evolution of monogamy and subjection of women. The radicalists state that sex inequality in the labour market is based on sex inequality at home and they accuse the capitalist set up in the advanced countries as the cause for the deplorable status of women (Brown, 1976; Humphires, 1978).<sup>2</sup>

We now propose to discuss in more detail the problems and status of women workers as highlighted in various earlier studies. We will discuss these issues with reference to the developed and developing countries separately. This will be followed by a survey of literature on women workers in India.

### I.1 Developed Countries

The female work participation rates in developed countries range from a low of 50.1 per cent in the

Federal Republic of Germany to a high of 75.3 per cent in Sweden. In the United Kingdom and the United States of America (USA) the female work participation rates are 57.5 per cent and 60.7 per cent respectively (Schmid and Weitzel, 1984). A significant observation indicating the relatively inferior status of women in these countries is that the male participation rates are significantly higher - more than 80.0 per cent in all these countries. We have observed above that female workers in industrialised nations are concentrated in the industrial and services sector. The general status and problems of women workers in these nations are highlighted by Peter Sloane's (1980) description of a typical female worker as being in an unskilled manual occupation involving part-time employment in a small establishment in the services sector in a low wage region where there is little opportunity for overtime, a time rate method of payment and lack of collective bargaining. A low paid woman would be having few years of experience in the labour market and possessing few educational qualifications. We, therefore, focus in detail on the basic problems of occupational segregation and male-female earning differentials in the developed countries and



also study the impact of anti-discrimination and equal opportunity legislations on the status of women in these nations.

I.1.1 Occupational Segregation : Employment discrimination is widely prevalent in most industrialised nations certain jobs are regarded as 'female' jobs and this may be due to distinct preferences or different human capital investment. Thus even though female labour force participation rates have increased substantially in most advanced nations, there occurs 'crowding' in certain sectors. The expansion of employment opportunities during the past three decades has primarily taken place in areas that traditionally have been the domain of women, such as the services sector, clerical work, sales, education and the public sector. In a study of the Swedish labour market Jomung (1984) observed that though women's participation rates have increased from 32 per cent in 1960 to 42.25 per cent in 1975, there is explicit segregation as 76.5 per cent of accounting and clerical workers were women and 72.2 per cent of service workers were females. According to this study, though female workers are attempting to enter 'male' jobs, 10 per cent of all women work in occupations with more than

80 per cent men, whereas only 3 per cent of men work in occupations with more than 80 per cent women, and the female workforce was under-represented in manufacturing and administrative sectors.

In the U.S.A. similar occupational segregation exists, i.e. a large proportion of women entering clerical, sales, social work and nursing.<sup>3</sup> Beller (1982) observes that occupational segregation declined in the 1970's till 1977 and then increased because of recession and resulting unemployment. This decline was because larger number of females entered 'atypical' womens occupations.

Occupational segregation can also occur if educational qualifications required in some occupations is so high that women are not deemed suitable for them. A study by Standing (1976) observes that in service and white-collar occupations, 'dead-end' jobs appeared to have higher entry requirements than those from which promotion was possible - this is called horizontal segregation where women workers cluster at the lower end of the occupational hierarchies and diminish in number further up the ladder. A comparative study of British and American women shows that American women are more likely to be

employed as professionals or teachers and in the non-manual category (Dex and Shaw, 1986). The same study states that clerical work is the largest occupational category for women in both countries and that British women are more likely to work in the lower paying occupations.

Female employment tends to be far more homogenous than that of men. In U.K. no less than 40 per cent women are in clerical and related occupations (Sloane, 1980). Chiplin and Sloane (1976) state that a vast bulk of female employees are concentrated in a very small number of occupational groups where the labour-force is predominantly female. Barron and Norris (1974) characterise these occupations as one in which work is unskilled, repititive, requiring manual dexterity, lacking in responsibility and poor pay, also such occupations require less additional training. Hakim (1974) has studied the pattern of segregation in England during the period 1901-1971 according to which the distribution of the labour force by sex ratio shows that the percentage of women working in occupations with more than 60 per cent of women workers has increased strongly

over this period and that male entry in female jobs has not been counterbalanced by females entering male domains. According to a comparative study of U.S., Germany, Sweden and Great Britain, under-representation of female workers is less pronounced in administrative work in the U.S. and Germany than in Great Britain and Sweden. Over-representation of females in services is higher in England and Sweden but lowest in Germany and women are over-represented in agriculture in Germany but under-represented in the other countries (Maclean and Weitzel, 1984).

The sectoral composition of women workers in the U.S.S.R. (Attwood and McAndrew, 1984) differs from that of other western countries. Most working women are in the industrial sector and are concentrated in the low-priority sector, mainly machine building and textile and garment industry which is highly feminized. Women form a majority of low-skilled workers in all sectors. Attwood and McAndrew have also observed both vertical and horizontal segregation of women as they are concentrated in manual, unskilled and often heavy work with low remunerations.

In the U.S.<sup>4</sup> and Germany the degree of occupational segregation is falling and in Germany and Britain it is constant or rising. In the U.S.S.R., this tendency is increasing over the past 20 years (McAuley, 1981).

I.1.2 Male/Female Earning Differentials : Women's

earnings as a percentage of men's earnings in the year 1980 was 71.4 in Britain, 72.4 in France, 64.4 in Federal Republic of Germany, 89.8 in Sweden and 60.2 in the U.S. (Schmid and Weitzel, 1984).<sup>5</sup> It is, therefore, obvious that in all the developed countries females have markedly lower average earnings than males. Women's pay gets depressed relative to men's because of the unfavourable distribution of employment or the 'crowding' hypothesis, i.e. large proportion of women in few selected sectors with the result that the enforced abundance of supply lowers their marginal productivity in some areas whilst maintaining it at a higher level in the male sector through barriers to mobility (Bergmann, 1971). The human capital investment theory also tries to explain this earnings gap by stating that individuals make schooling, training and other investment decisions on the basis of



their perceptions of the costs of the available options and the expected benefits associated with it (Becker, 1975). Following this theory, if women assume primary responsibility for household chores, they would invest less in market skills and their earnings would be lower than that of men who have a strong incentive to invest in market skills. Phelps (1972) and Arrow (1973) have developed the idea of statistical discrimination where employers may not be prejudiced but treat individual women as having the average characteristics of all women. Blau (1983) has developed a theory of feedback discrimination where employers by denying women on-the-job training ensure that women will exhibit the characteristics they are believed to have, thus, if women are relegated to low level jobs, they have a high turnover, confirming the employers prejudice.

Marital status may also affect women's earnings. Malkiels (1973) and Gordan and Mortan (1976) suggest that employers may prefer single to married females as they expect higher absence and turnover rates in the latter and this depresses their earnings. Holmes (1976) estimates that in Canada potential life time earnings of females average 41 per cent of that of males. A more

systematic study by Gunderson (1978) on U.S. and Canadian data concludes that 'earnings were non-linearly related to the average income of occupations, with females doing best relative to males in upper middle income jobs and females doing poorest relative to males in lower income and very high income jobs'. Earnings gap also exists for similar tasks. Sawhill (1973) observed that one-third of the gap is attributed to wage discrimination and two-thirds to productivity differences, the latter being attributed to non-labour market discrimination particularly to discrimination within the household. The effect of unionisation on the average earnings of women depends upon the impact of unions on the wages and the extent of unionisation of male and female workers. Gunderson (1975) observes that unions have a substantial impact on rise in the wages of females relative to males, specially for narrow defined occupations in the same establishment where unions have been able to close almost half the gap. Only a few women get equal wage benefits because a smaller percentage of them are unionised compared with male workers.

Lack of training and education effects women's earnings adversely, but the picture is brighter now with

increasing number of women entering universities and colleges. According to June O'Neill (1984) the wage gap has perceptibly declined in Sweden and appears to be narrowing in England, West Germany and France. She also observes that in the U.S., there is evidence of an increase in the rate of return women receive from work, suggesting a narrowing of the wage gap over the next decade.

I.1.3 Impact of Anti-Discrimination and Equal Opportunity Legislations on the Status of Women : In the developed nations anti-discrimination and equal opportunity legislations have been passed to uplift the unjust conditions of the female workers. The impact of these legislations have by and large been positive except for some inherent deficiencies in the formulation of the law.

The U.S.A. have been the pioneers in this field where the Equal Pay Act was passed in 1963, stating that men and women working in the same establishment will receive equal pay for equal work. This was followed by the Equal Rights Amendment in 1972 and the Pregnancy Discrimination Act, 1978, all combining to give women a status equal to men in all spheres. The shortcoming of



the Equal Pay Act is that though it is an effective remedy for wage inequalities within establishments, it has not been able to raise the wages of women who work in 'female' occupations (Braun, 1984). Under the Reagan administration, funding for civil rights enforcement has been reduced to just 0.07 per cent of the budget, accordingly federal agencies are finding it difficult to investigate complaints and engage in other activities to eliminate systematic discrimination (Braun, 1984). Another loophole is that job-evaluating techniques are biased, therefore, jobs traditionally held by women like nursing and clerical work are undervalued relative to their true worth (Livernash, 1980). Thus 'equal work' should be substituted by 'comparable work' (Hildebrand, 1980). According to Braun 'with an unsympathetic administration, equal opportunity policies came under increasing attack, women are .... more apt to be laid off in a recession because of shorter labour market tenure, stereotypes favouring men, discrimination and less seniority' (Braun, 1980, p.103).

In the U.K. the Equal Pay and Sex Discrimination Acts were passed in 1970 and 1975 respectively. A study conducted by Snell, Glucklich and Povall (1981) shows

that even though employers complied with the Equal Pay Act, the strategies they used seriously limited the impact. Either women were moved out of jobs or the job content was changed to prevent equal pay comparisons. New grading schemes were introduced so that women ended up on lower grades than what their skill deserved. Job evaluation factors were altered to favour men. The provision of the act did not cover certain groups of workers who either fell outside collective agreements or were employed in totally female areas of work. In manual areas these groups were found in canteen and cleaning work but the greatest incidence was amongst white-collar women in private manufacturing, where women were working in traditionally female occupations (Glücklich, 1984). The Sex Discrimination Act also had little impact on the extent of sex-segregation and the occupational distribution of women remained unchanged. Mostly women still remained in low paid predominantly female occupations. With this negligible success of statutory policies, a new legislation was passed in Britain, The Minimum Wages Legislation, to improve women's wages and employment conditions. The objectives have not been achieved so far because of various economic, industrial and institutional factors, e.g. the presence of illegal

underpayment (Glucklich, 1984). However, due to these legislations women's earnings did increase, the other important contributory factor being the growth in female trade union membership in the seventies (Hunt and Adams, 1980).

In Sweden the Act of Equality between men and women was passed as late as in 1980. This included separate taxation of earning between husband and wife, paid parental leave for child care for both father and mother, state subsidized day care centres and above all, the opening of the labour market in all occupations to women. Sweden records the highest female labour force participation rate of 75.3 per cent, but the most discouraging fact is that sex segregation by occupation is very pronounced and the anti-discriminatory laws have not been able to solve this problem effectively (Gustafsson, 1984).

The situation is the same in other advanced nations also, though anti-discriminatory laws have been passed, there are various loopholes in their formulation which leads the employers to practice subtle and overt discrimination against female workers. Thus, according to Pfarr and Eitel 'legislation as well as the practical policies

of the state, political parties and trade unions have to be more strongly based on the self-initiatives of women in order to learn from practical experiences' (1984, p.182).

## I.2 Developing Countries

It has been observed by various scholars that with economic development and growth of capital in the third world nations the status of women on the whole and women workers specifically is deteriorating. A major reason for this being the inability of the concerned governments to integrate women into development strategies and thus undervaluing their potential and actual production.

We focus on the status of women workers in agricultural and non-agricultural activities, highlighting the basic problems faced by women workers in developing countries.

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I.2.1 Women in Agricultural Activities : Since agriculture forms the base of the economies of the under-developed regions it is important to discuss the role of women in this sector. According to Boserup (1970) in the farm family the traditional division of labour was originally imposed by the sex difference itself. In her study of Africa she observed that the female farming system was

much more prevalent than the male system. Since most of the tribals did shifting cultivation, the men did the task of felling trees and cleaning the ground and women did all the subsequent operations. But with changes in population density and farming techniques there occurred a change in the 'natural' division of labour. Boserup observed in her study that the number of women in cultivator families taking part in agricultural work was much higher than that of men. Also women work for more hours, or days per year than men, e.g., in Gambia and Uganda men would work less than 10 hours per week whereas in Congo and Kenya women worked for more than 25 hours. Because of this high participation rate women did more than half of the agricultural work. Shifting cultivation exists in Latin American countries where agriculture is entirely in female hands (Mar, 1963). In all countries of South East Asia tribals subsist on shifting cultivation with female farming. Plough cultivation exists mainly in Asia and this system propagates a male family labour-force. According to Boserup's study plough cultivation is used in regions with private ownership, thus the farm family gets more help from hired labourers. The involvement of the women in agricultural activities under this system

is severely restricted. However, with increasing pressure of population, more labour-intensive techniques have to be employed and this leads to radical changes in sex roles in agriculture though examples of high degree of work participation in densely populated areas are found in Egypt (Seklani, 1962) and China.

With the advent of Europeans into Asia and Africa, the status of women underwent drastic changes. The Europeans shared the opinion that men were superior to females in the art of farming. Thus, in Uganda cotton growing was started by women, but in 1923 the European director for agriculture decided that cotton growing was not a task for women, thereby men took over the entire process a decade later (Powersland, 1952). Most modern farming techniques were taught to men. Thus, in Senegal, the instructors failed to introduce better techniques in paddy production because they taught only men whereas cultivation continued to be done by women. Because of this preferential treatment to men the differences in labour productivity of men and women continued to become wider. Modernisation of agriculture adversely affected the female farmer, the productivity gap was widened



because men monopolised the use of new equipment and modern agricultural methods and women continued to work with the old tools. The European settlers brought with them the idea of growing cash-crops. Because of their prejudice regarding female's in farming, they employed males. Thus the latter were able to apply modern scientific methods in the cultivation of cash-crops whereas women continued to cultivate food crops by traditional methods.

There was a drastic change in the status of the women when tribal Africans took to permanent cultivation of privately owned land. A study of the Cameroons in West Africa by Kaberry (1952) shows that women own only the crop and men own the land. This in itself is not dangerous, but when the pressure on land increases due to increased population or expansion of the cultivation of cash crops, then this scarcity of land may result in the loss of women's right to land (Simons, 1968). Kaberry suggests that women should be given the right to acquire land on equal terms with men if there is scarcity of land. In most tribes land tenure system is traditional, whether land is inherited by male or female members depends upon

whether the tribe is patrilinear or matrilinear. But when land is sold then there are more chances of men purchasing it because they have money by cultivating cash crops. Thus possession of land may gradually pass from women to men. Even in this case women can grow crops and they have the right to sell the surplus and use the proceeds freely (Finnegan, 1965). The loss of women's right to land resulted due to various land reforms introduced by European administrators. For instance, in 1898 they proclaimed transfer of land from women to men in the Union of South Africa, where each wife of a polygamist was denied the right to have her own plot. A welcome relief is the Negri Sembilan area of Malay which continues to have a matrilineal tradition, with the rubber boom in that region 57 per cent of the owners of rubber land were women supporting the researchers conclusions about feminisation of land (Stevens, 1985).

With decreasing land ownership for women they have become agricultural labourers, most of them belonging to lower caste families. Boserup states that the social gap between the cultivator and the labourer is very wide. Similarly in India we observe that apart from high-caste



Hindu women who take no part in farming, there are some 15 million women belonging to tribal and low caste groups who earn their living as casual labourers. Most female agricultural labourers of Ceylon and Malaya work on plantations and account for 22 per cent and 16 per cent of the whole agricultural labour-force. In Ceylon and Vietnam women account for over 50 per cent of the labour-force in the plantations. In Africa, however, women contribute minimally to the plantation labour-force.

Boserup identifies four types of rural women : 'first, there is the veiled non-working women of the Middle East ; secondly, we have the domestic wife who contributes very little to farming which is characteristic of many Latin American countries; thirdly, we have the active family worker who must carry a large share of the burden of work in the family farm, she is characteristic of the South East Asian scene; and fourthly, we have the African type women who cannot expect to be supported by her husband, but must fend independently for her own support and that of her family' (Boserup, 1970, p.70).

I.2.2 Women in Non-Agricultural Activities : With development the modern organised sector takes shape and this adversely affects women because it takes over economic activities performed traditionally by self-employed women and employers in the modern sector favour men as employees. The non-agricultural labour-force in these nations is rapidly expanding. According to the I.L.O. Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1977-83 North Africa and the Middle East have the lowest regional average for non-agricultural women workers at 12 per cent of labour-force; the highest average is in Latin America and Carribbean where women constitute 35 per cent of the non-agricultural labour-force, while in Asia the reported average is 27 per cent. Eoserup (1970) found that in all developing countries women constituted a higher percentage of persons in bazaar and service occupations than in modern occupations.

I.2.2.1 The Informal Sector : In this sector exploitation, low wages, discrimination, subordination and segregation are rampant. Since workers in this sector are mostly illiterate and are not organised collective bargaining to improve their status is a remote possibility. Since this is an unorganised sector most equal opportunity

legislations are not implemented in this sector. The activity in this sector is generally manual and unskilled, e.g. workers in construction, mines and transport. In a number of Asian and some Latin American countries women account for one-fourth of the labour-force in the mines. In Syria women work as masons and in house construction (Sweet, 1960; Fuller, 1961). Many African contractors employ women in road construction, for drawing water and carrying sand and other material as well as in mines (Commission for Technical Cooperation in Africa, 1957). Vietnamese women are load carriers and dock labourers (Coughlin, 1954). All these unskilled, manual tasks are given to women because they accept low wages and because of illiteracy and lack of awareness, they do not raise any objections to unauthorised deductions, false accounts and delayed payments.

Another major section of women workers included in the informal sector are the domestic servants, which is a characteristic feature of countries at an intermediate stage of economic development. In Latin America the whole group of domestic servants and employees in service establishments seem to be larger than in industrialised countries and these activities are mainly

'women's work'. According to Boserup (1970, p.104) 'the whole domestic sector grows with economic development and at the same time tends to become more exclusively feminine'. In some small towns Boserup observed that the economy is based on home industry, if this home industry specialises in products which are traditionally produced by women, then obviously there is high participation of females. This work is referred to as home-based work, the demand for which is increasing because of capitalist penetration and the increasing export market. Hameeda Hossain (1987) on the basis of a study of Bangladeshi women in manufacturing of handicrafts observes that though the visibility of these workers is increasing and attempts have been made to organise them into cooperatives, the greatest threat arises from the fact that the management of these cooperatives is in elite hands and this may lead to subordination of the interests of the producers to those of the importers, exporters and cooperative management.

I.2.2.2 The Formal Sector : In the modern sector, the skilled and supervisory work is done by men while women do the unskilled and subservient jobs. Women are

very rarely trained as skilled industrial workers. Because of this and lower educational qualifications in developing countries, there exists a large wage differential between earnings of women and men. Though the countries may possess equal pay legislations, the rule of equal pay for equal work is often ignored (Suwando, 1959). Some times to circumvent the law women are not given jobs in certain establishments or certain well-paid jobs are given only to men. An observation of South Vietnamese workers by Boserup shows that women doing specialised work were paid only minimally more than unskilled workers, whereas men doing specialised work are paid substantially more than unskilled workers. In multi-racial and multi-national societies one observes that people belonging to the superior group were on top of the urban employment hierarchy and the 'lower class' people were relegated to least responsible and lowest paid jobs. This kind of distribution of labour force is very apparent in Kenya and South Africa (Boserup, 1970). Sexual discrimination is rampant in Tanzanian women. In a study done by Meghji (1972) it was observed that factory managers held the view that women were incapable of handling modern machines. Thus

with mechanisation of industries in Tanzania most of the female-dominated tasks were taken over by men, e.g. in 1972 automated machinery was introduced and all female workers were promptly dismissed.

In non-manual occupations the greatest obstacle faced by feminists and economists alike is that of occupational segregation on the basis of sex, which is very deeply ingrained in most third world and developing nations. According to the I.L.O. Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1983 the proportion of women among professionals is 46.5 per cent in Latin America and Caribbean, 34.2 per cent in Asia and 27.1 per cent in Africa. Surprisingly in most of the developing countries there is over representation of women in this sector. This is mainly because of two occupations - nursing and teaching - where women predominate. In Guatemala in 1973 three quarters of women professionals were teachers (Chinchilla, 1977). In Lima, Peru 74 per cent of women in high level professional category were concentrated in two 'female' jobs - secondary school teacher and obstetrician, whereas other professions like architects, engineers, lawyers and accountants were predominantly male (Scott, 1986). A study of Cyprus shows that occupational segregation



of sexes is partly responsible for the large wage differentials between men and women (House, 1986). The study showed that the employers believed that absenteeism, voluntary turnover and lower supervisory skills were characteristic of the female workers, the study goes ahead to observe that such differential treatment leads to pessimism and despondency about chances of promotion on the part of women.

Women in administrative and managerial work are relatively rare. Women's share of administrative jobs is less than 5 per cent in most countries of Middle East and North Africa. In Latin American and Asian countries the proportion is a little higher, 10 to 20 per cent. There is an increase in this sector since the 1960's because of the growth of government employment where sex inequality is less than in the private sector (Anker and Hein, 1986). The fact that there is such low representation of women in this profession is indicative of well defined discrimination against women because these jobs involve decision-making and great responsibility and women are deemed unsuitable for the same. However, in the Phillipines women exceed 10 per cent of the administrative personnel (Fox, 1963).

Clerical work in the industrialised nations has been the domain of women. In developing nations, however, this is not so, only Latin America comes close to the pattern of the industrialised nations. Feminisation of this sector has not yet occurred for the simple reason that female illiteracy is widespread in these nations. In a study of Ghanaian women it was seen that the proportion who did not go to school was 47 per cent for males but 66 per cent for females (Date-Bah, 1986). In most developing nations boys are sent to school whereas the girls do all the domestic tasks. Only in Latin America there is no difference in sex proportions among students.

Thus we observe that in the agricultural sector technological advancement and mechanisation on the one hand, and decreasing land ownership for women on the other has adversely affected the female labour-force. Though the proportion of women in the non-agricultural sector is increasing, their status is far from satisfactory. In the informal sector, women workers face exploitation, low wages, discrimination and segregation mainly due to illiteracy and lack of unionisation. Even women workers in the formal sector experience discrimination and are relegated to low skilled monotonous jobs with low wages and there is also a preponderance

of women in specific occupations like nursing and teaching. The governments will have to take concrete steps to remove sex inequalities in the labour market.

### I.3 The Indian Scene

We will now focus on the problems and status of Indian women workers. In India the first major attempt at analysing the status of women in general and as workers in specific was done by the National Committee on the Status of Women in India which published its report "Towards Equality" in 1974. The Committee has made an indepth study of the role, rights and opportunities for women in economic participation. The three major objectives of the Committee were : firstly, to assess the impact of the constitutional, legal and administrative provisions on the social status of women, their education and employment particularly in the rural sector; secondly, to examine the status of women in the changing social pattern; and, thirdly, to suggest remedial and other measures in all fields which would enable women to play their full and proper role in building up the nation.

Before studying the problems of Indian women workers, we may have a look at the size and structure of the female labour force in India. The concept of a worker defined by the Census authorities as one engaged in economically productive work is both vague and inaccurate as it does not include a large proportion of the female population which is involved in domestic chores that are nevertheless economically productive. In the 32nd Round of the NSS survey on employment and unemployment this defect has been rectified to some extent by the introduction of another category of workers (Code 93) which includes women engaged in domestic duties along with free collection of wood, fish, small games etc. and tailoring and sewing for household use (Sarvekshana, April 1986).

From Tables I.1 and I.2 we see a substantial discrepancy in the results of the Census and the NSS as regards women workforce participation rates. The 1981 Census records 16 per cent of rural and 7.28 per cent of urban women in the work-force, whereas, the 38th Round of the NSS for the year 1983 shows 28.38 per cent and 13.81 per cent respectively. A disturbing fact to note

Table I.1 : Percentage of Persons of Age 5 and Above usually Working as per the NSS Rounds for all India by Sex

Round	Type of Workers	Rural		Urban	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
27th	Main and Marginal	63.84	37.53	57.09	15.53
32nd	Main only	62.25	28.82	56.22	14.03
32nd	Main and Marginal	64.06	38.48	57.48	17.80
38th	Main only	61.10	28.38	56.29	13.81
38th	Main and Marginal	63.23	38.74	57.71	17.31

Source : Sarvekshana, Vol.IX, No.4, April 1986, pp.8-111.

Table I.2 : Percentage of Workers to Total Population by Sex as per 1971 and 1981 Census

Year	Type of Workers	Total	Male	Female
1971	Total	33.06	52.61	12.06
	Rural	34.01	53.62	13.36
	Urban	29.32	48.80	6.65
1981	Total	33.44	34.18	13.99
	Rural	34.76	52.62	15.99
	Urban	29.22	48.54	7.28

Source : Primary Census Abstract, 1986.

from these tables is that even by NSS records the female work participation rates are abysmally low as compared to the male work participation rates 61.10 per cent male and 26.38 per cent female in rural areas and 56.29 per cent males and 13.81 per cent females in urban areas. The primary reasons for this are the higher women illiteracy rates and social taboos attached to women entering the labour force. Females already in the work-force are also facing grave obstacles in the form of gender discrimination, exploitative working conditions, sexual harassment, etc. which discourage other women to enter the labour market.

Table I.3 throws light upon the structural composition of the female workforce. We observe from this table that the largest percentage (46.18) of women workers are agricultural labourers. The category of other workers which includes services has a mere 16.03 per cent of total female workers. It has been observed that in 1981 about 81 per cent females were involved in agricultural activities whereas only 18.76 per cent were in non-agricultural activities.



Table I.3 : The Percentage Distribution of Main Workers of Each Sex into Broad Industrial Categories in 1981 in India

Sex	Cultivators	Agricultural Labourers	Household Industry	Other Workers
Male	43.70	19.56	3.18	33.56
Female	33.20	46.18	4.59	16.03

Source : Primary Census Abstract, Part II B(i), Census of India, 1981.

We now propose to discuss the various problems faced by female workers in the three broad occupational categories of the economy, viz. agriculture, manufacturing and services. This division has been made because the problems faced by women workers depend upon their socio-economic status which varies amongst different categories.

I.3.1 Agriculture : The Indian economy is agro-based and women play a vital role in this sector as is apparant from the fact that 81 per cent of the women workforce was involved in agricultural activities in

1981. As Boserup (1970) has pointed out in North India female work participation rate is much lower than in South India. One advantage that exists because of low work participation rate is that the male-female wage differential is narrower. In her study of sixteen villages in U.P. she observes that the ratio of female to male wages was relatively low for hoeing and ploughing which are termed "men's tasks". In half the villages this ratio was 0.9 which confirms the fact that wage differentials narrow down because of short supply of female labour. The reason for this short supply is the restrictive attitude of women to work which are highly prevalent in North India. Contrastingly in South and Central India the female work participation rate is high because of abundant supply of labour which in turn greatly depresses the wage rates as compared to men.

Factors affecting female work participation rate and low wages are due not only to economic factors but largely due to socio-cultural attitudes and societal restraints which play a major role in the life of rural women of India (Bhakter, 1987). Turning to the economic criterion, low wages for women exist because of the unorganised nature of work, the case by which hired labour can be substituted for family labour, the seasonal nature of the

demand for labour and the traditional classification of some jobs as the monopoly of women. Though the Minimum Wages Act was passed in 1948 some states have not brought large areas of agricultural employment within its purview. The machinery for fixing and enforcing the law is not uniform and this has a greater impact upon women workers because of their illiteracy and consequent ignorance of law. However, the picture is not totally bleak as there are some states for example Bihar which have not maintained any differentials in wages for some jobs in agriculture. Studies done in other states show a contrary picture. Sethi's (1972) study of Punjab shows that most agricultural labourers belong to scheduled castes and tribes and are illiterate. She observes that agricultural employment is seasonal and women are not recognised as workers because of varying working hours and clear male-female wage differentials exist.

The root cause of poverty and subsequent exploitation of the agricultural labourers is landlessness, lack of organisation and inequality in status (National Committee on Status of Women, 1974). Though the government has made various efforts to confer ownership rights

to tenants, the general pattern of change is in a downward direction through increasing pressure of growing families on small holdings and growing indebtedness which leads to loss of land (Prasad, 1974). The impact of this on women in agriculture is apparant from the sharp decline of cultivators and increase of agricultural labourers, the decline being almost 50 per cent from 1951 to 1971.

The Green Revolution and subsequent mechanisation of agriculture and various agrarian reforms have adversely affected the position of women in agriculture (Ray, Rangarao and Attari, 1985). Land reforms, technology extension and modern inputs are clearly male-biased. Because of high illiteracy of women and lack of training, modern farm methods are used by men. Women are relegated to harvesting and post-harvesting activities which are burdensome and have a low rate of turnover. With modernisation came cultivation of cash crops in which productivity was high, but this was also done by men whereas women did subsistence agriculture. This widened the male-female wage differential.

In recent Five Year Plans the government has emphasised the potential of women in agriculture and rural

development. Thus several programmes have been formulated by which women can contribute more effectively to rural development. The foremost need being education, several adult education programmes were started. Rural women are also being trained to use modern equipment to narrow the productivity gap.

What needs to be done in this sector is the redistribution of land to reduce inequalities. Also women, who perform many arduous domestic tasks which are economically productive but for which they get no cash remuneration, should be recognised as "workers". Another important step to ameliorate the condition of women is the organisation of the labour force to improve the bargaining power of these workers and to prevent exploitation and low wages.

I.3.2 Manufacturing : For a clearer view of the sector we have sub-divided it into three categories viz. unorganised, construction workers and organised.

I.3.2.1 Unorganised Sector : This sector includes both household and cottage industries like khadi, sericulture, coir, cotton textiles, leather, rubber, chikan,

beedi, beverages, etc. Women workers in this sector generally come from economically poor households and thus need to work to add to the family income.<sup>7</sup> Lack of education and training prevent them from entering the organised sector. A distressing fact regarding this sector is the absence of adequate and reliable data regarding their number, socio-economic and working conditions, degrees of exploitation and other specific difficulties, this is particularly disturbing as 94 per cent of women workers belong to the unorganised sector (Singh and Vitanen, 1987).

A dominant form in this sector is home-based production. This sector is divided into two categories viz. self-employed work and piece rate work. A major percentage of women in this sector belong to the latter category where the workers are in the clutches of corrupt sub-contractors on whom they have to depend upon for employment. Bhatt's (1987) study shows that the employer has considerable advantages by employing piece rate workers because of negligible overhead costs, no investment in tools or machinery, no trade unions and no legislations defending worker's rights like welfare measures, minimum wages or social security benefits.



Certain common features of these workers are extremely low wages, long and erratic working hours, fragmentation of workforce and absence of any form of workers organisation (Kelles-Vitanen & Singh, 1987). Usha Jumaní (1987), in her study of self-employed women, observes that they are a shade better than piece rate workers because they have control over raw materials and tools and above all do not have to depend upon greedy middlemen for providing a market for their goods. Women form the special targets because they are vulnerable and therefore they bear the burden of a system which forces the sub-contractor at each level to increase his profits by squeezing the price of labour.

In the past few years two notable organisations have come to the forefront to take up the cause of these workers. They are the Self-Employed Women's Organisation and the Working Women' Forum. The basic aim of both is to unionise the workers so that they can fight for their rights and to make the government become aware of their condition and perceive the need to pass and implement welfare measures to protect these workers.

I.3.2.2 Construction or Contract Workers : A significant group of wage labourers in this sector are employed by contractors. Despite the promulgation of the Minimum Wages Act and the Equal Remuneration Act, both low wages and sexual discrimination are characteristic features of this sector. This basic problems of this sector have been delineated by the National Committee on Women (1974) as insecurity of employment, lack of standard minimum wages, excessive hours of work and absence of any welfare amenities. The Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970 has tried to remedy the situation by making the employer responsible for provision of basic amenities and regular payment of wages. But these acts have not been effectively implemented as is apparant from a few research studies done in this sector. Sinha and Ranade's (1975) study of construction workers in Delhi and Bombay shows that distinct male-female wage differentials exist for the same kind of work. Besides this welfare amenities are also not provided. Another study on this sector (Gangrade and Gathia, 1983) observes that low pay, sexual harassment and lack of access to resources is widely prevalent.

Though various acts have been passed to uplift the condition of women workers in this sector, their success

depends upon a strong labour organisation to compel implementation of these statutory provisions. As most contract workers are rural migrants and have been drawn to the city for economic reasons, poverty and indebtedness deters them from forming a union. A fuller investigation of workers in this sector is imperative and here the government and various social research agencies can play a vital role.

I.3.2.3 Organised Sector : Even though over the years the female workforce in this sector has been steadily increasing, it still accounts for only 6 per cent of total women workers. The main source of employment are factories, mines and plantations. Though employment here is generally increasing the rate of increase has slowed down in recent years. In factories and plantations the number of women employed has increased but in mines the figure has fallen from 1.09 lakhs to 0.75 lakhs in 1982 and further to 0.72 lakhs in 1983. In plantations women's employment has generally remained the same because of its labour-intensive nature.

The decline or stagnation of women workers in industry ironically is partly due to labour laws aimed

to protect health and welfare of women workers. These laws have regulated the employment of women in dangerous occupations and operations. There is prohibition of employing women between 7 p.m. and 6.a.m. and special permission has to be taken to do night shifts. This proves troublesome to the employers having women workers. Maternity benefits accrue to all women workers under the Maternity Benefit Act of 1961. Besides this various other welfare measures like creches and health and sanitation measures are extended to women workers. As all these provisions require larger costs for the employer, he is dissuaded from recruiting women (Savara, 1986).

Surprisingly the second factor responsible for decline or stagnation of women in this sector is the implementation of the Equal Remuneration Act of 1976. The equalisation of wages between men and women has lead to the retrenchment of women workers who were employed because of cheap remuneration paid to them. An occupational wage survey shows that the law is evaded by classification of certain jobs as "female tasks" and keeping low wage rates for those tasks. According to the Directorate General of Employment and Training the occupational pattern of women employees indicate their

concentration at the level of unskilled workers (55.3 per cent in private sector and 20.4 per cent in public sector).

A third reason for decline of women workers in this sector is the structural changes in industry through modernisation. Investment in capital-intensive goods and advanced technology has had an adverse effect upon women's employment. Women are victims of inadequate training and lack of educational opportunities, which displaces them from employment and restricts their mobility (Department of Social Welfare, 1977). Modernisation in jute and textile industry has lead to a large number of women joining the unemployed status. A study by Joshi and Joshi (1976) indicates that cotton mills which had been the largest employer of women in the organised sector have cut female employment by over 40 per cent (from 11 thousand in 1961 to 6.5 thousand in 1971 in Bombay). The women employed in the mills were largely unskilled and illiterate reelers and winders whose tasks were becoming increasingly automated.

A study by Rao and Husain (1979) observes that female employment is either declining or remaining stagnant in public sector industries. The reason behind this is that

women did not have access to the various training facilities and were thus relegated to monotonous unskilled jobs. An interesting fact observed in this study was that trade unions acted as barriers against women entering the workforce and those that were already employed were unable to voice legitimate demands because of non-involvement in trade unions.

A rather common misnomer is that men are more productive than women in industry, this has been proved wrong in a study by Ramanna (1987) on the electronic industry. He observes that women's productivity in this industry is higher than men's because of the delicate and precise nature of the job, thereby disproving the fact that women have a limited aptitude and are not capable of developing higher skills.

I.3.3 Services : Rapid expansion of women's education in the post-independence period has led to the phenomenon of increasing number of women entering the services sector. The majority of women in this sector are from middle class families and they join the labour force for economic reasons (Kapur, 1970). Rising prices and levels of employment coupled with increasing cost of



education and housing have increased the degree of economic pressures and the necessity of more than one worker in the family. Since this sector is effectively covered by the labour law legislations, male-female wage differentials do not exist. A disturbing feature, however, is the increasing labour market segmentation due to sex. It has been observed that 45 per cent women workers are concentrated in nursing and teaching. Another serious problem area is the sex-typing of jobs, low prestige jobs like clerical and related works have become "female occupations". A survey undertaken by the Directorate General of Employment and Training found that the highest percentage of employed women graduates were engaged in clerical and related works and three-fourths were drawing an earning below Rs.300/- per month (Directorate General of Employment and Training, 1963).

One such "female occupation" is that of teaching since long term professional training is accessible only to a minority of women, teaching has the heaviest concentration of women workers as it requires relatively less training. It is also accorded a high status in society even though the income potential is limited. Another reason for women forming a major percentage of the total

in this occupation is that the low salary structure specially in private schools provides a disincentive for men. Women teachers in male dominated institutions, however, face grave problems. Shukla's (1982) study states the problems as that of interaction of maintaining identity of career building and of victimisation.

The picture seems brighter for women administrators as regards job satisfaction, discriminatory attitude of male bosses, promotional procedures and ambition. Geeta Chaturvedi's (1985) study on women administrators shows that 91.7 per cent of respondents were satisfied with their jobs, the same percentage faced no problems in working with male bosses, 80.6 per cent were satisfied by the promotional procedures and 75 per cent were very ambitious. Only 8.3 per cent women felt that women personnel were watched with "curiosity, unwarranted and imperceptible".

Though women in higher services do not confront wage differentials and blatant discrimination, one problem exists for all these workers and that is role conflict. Women have a dual responsibility, those attributed to them by societal norms i.e. motherhood

and doing household chores along with those she acquired because of modern pressures i.e. wage employment. Since the status of these two dimensions are not similar, it leads to status dissonance and thereby intensifies role conflict (Ahmad, 1979). Dhingra's (1982) study shows that a conflict between these two aspects, traditional and modern, are being faced increasingly by professionally trained women and creates problems of adjustment both at home and at the work-place.

Women are now entering a field that has so far been the male domain, e.g. entrepreneurship. Women in India have now started taking up running their own establishments. The main problems faced by women entrepreneurs are lack of adequate finances, technical knowhow, non-availability of raw material, inadequate marketing facilities, lack of technical and managerial skills, etc. In recent years another class of entrepreneurs are coming forward, women are becoming increasingly involved in sophisticated industries like electronics, software and consultancy. Government policies towards special and institutional finance, interest, subsidy, technical and managerial support, Entrepreneurial Development Programme, etc. would attract more women to this vital sector (Misra, 1988).

#### 1.4 The Present Study

I.4.1 The Problem : Our survey of literature on women workers reveals that the status and problems faced by female workers differ from sector to sector and occupation to occupation. The forces of development and technological changes are also affecting different sections of women workers differently. While in the rural sector, the participation of women workers has declined, new avenues for them have opened in the urban, professional and office jobs. In the agricultural sector there is a clear sexual division of labour with male and female tasks and significant male-female wage differentials. Modernisation of agriculture, landlessness, illiteracy and social restraints have adversely affected the participation rates of female workers. Women in the unorganised manufacturing sector are ruthlessly exploited by their employers and middlemen because they are illiterate and very poor. They have long working hours and extremely low wages with a wide male-female earning differential and no trade unions. In the organised manufacturing sector women are relegated to low skilled, low paying, monotonous jobs due to lack of education and on-job training. The nature of problems faced by women in the

services sector are of a different nature. Though there is definite occupational segregation, the extent of discrimination is relatively less as compared with other categories of women workers. A major problem faced by women in professional occupations is that of role conflict between her stereotype role as mother/house-wife and her role as an employee.

In the light of the above situation a sectoral approach focussing on specific categories of workers would be more fruitful. The present study aims at examining the various issues related to women professional workers. The study is based upon a sample survey of selected women workers in this group in the city of Lucknow.

[ A few studies have come out in the past decade dealing with the problems of educated professional women workers in India. Srivastava's (1978) study on working and non-working women focussed on the causes and consequences of employment among educated married women. The problem of job monotony and task segregation has been studied by Sunder (1981). One facet studied by

Dandekar (1982) is that if women's participation in economic activity has to be increased, then, household chores will have to be shared. A study by Lalitha Devi (1985) on white-collar workers deals with the impact of work on the status of women at home and in the society. Talwar's (1984) comparative study of working and non-working women focuses on their working conditions and effects of being in employment on their status at home. Studies done by Shukla (1982) on women teachers and Chaturvedi (1985) on women administrators have focussed on the issue of discrimination, job satisfaction and sex-segregation.

There are very few studies pertaining to female workers in the organised sector for urban areas of Uttar Pradesh. Only two studies have been conducted on women in the services sector in Lucknow city one by Singh (1981) and the other by Papola (1986). Singh's study throws light on the fact that nursing has not acquired a high status in the hierarchy of professions because the material benefits are low and societal valuation of nursing is not positive. Papola's (1986) study emphasises the problem of discrimination and segregation in the entire formal sector of urban Lucknow. These



two studies, though valuable, have failed to look into the larger issues pertaining to women professional workers. Singh's study is limited to a single group of workers, i.e. nurses, whereas Papola approaches the problem from the limited angle of segregation and discrimination. The present study proposes to investigate the problems of women professional workers in a wider prospective covering socio-economic characteristics, working conditions, discrimination, earning levels, role conflict and impact on status.

I.4.2 Objectives : The major objectives of the study are the following :

1. To study the employment structure of urban women workers and to find out the extent of job stigmatisation.
2. To study the socio-economic characteristics of these urban educated women workers.
3. To observe the working conditions of these workers to find out harassment, if any, and observance of protective and welfare measures, extent of trade union participation and level of job satisfaction.
4. To estimate the levels of earnings of educated professional workers and thus get an insight into their economic position, and also thereby measuring their economic contributions to the household.

5. To gauge the intensity of sex discrimination at various levels i.e. during recruitment, promotions, etc.
6. To assess the extent of role conflict i.e. to see whether her role at home and at work adversely effect each other or not.

I.4.3 Hypotheses : The study proposes to test the following hypotheses :

1. A major proportion of women professional workers belong to the urban middle class families.
2. Job preferences for women are guided by :
  - a. Non-transferability of jobs;
  - b. Level of earnings;
  - c. Maternity and social security benefits; and
  - d. Attitude of the husband.
3. The level of earnings and education of these workers is positively correlated.
4. There is a concentration of women professional workers in selected occupations particularly teachers.
5. Among educated urban women workers there is a preference for salaried jobs.
6. In the organised sector one does not expect discrimination regarding pay and working conditions among male and female workers.
7. The extent of female participation in trade unions is expected to be less as compared to males.
8. Being a part of the highly paid labour force has a favourable impact on the economic and social status of women.

9. With whole time jobs, these professional workers experience role conflict as mothers/wives and as employees.
10. There is a high level of job satisfaction amongst professional women workers.

I.4.4 Sample Design : For the purpose of the study a sample of 170 females has been taken by using the technique of stratified random sampling. In the first stage female professional workers were categorised in 8 categories and from each category a random sample of 20 workers was taken, except in the case of teachers where a sample of 40 has been taken in view of their larger number. The sample of the teachers is confined to degree college and university teachers only. Details of the sample design are given in Table I.4.

Primary data has been collected with the help of a detailed structured questionnaire covering the various issues listed above. The field survey was conducted during the period February to May 1989.

I.4.5 Importance of the Study : Since very little work has been done on women professional workers and since they form a growing portion of the work force, the present study is expected to provide valuable insights

Table I.4 : Details of the Sample Design

Categories I & II	Size of Sample	Total Women Workers in the Category in Lucknow District (Urban) 1981	Sample Workers As Per Cent of Total Workers in the Category
1. Scientists and Science Technicians	20	27	74.07
2. Doctors	20	327	6.12
3. Teachers Total*	40	339	11.80
i. University Teachers	20	69	28.99
ii. Degree College Teachers	20	270	7.41
4. Jurists	20	43	46.51
5. Architects, Engg., Technologists, Surveyors & Engg. Technicians	20	86	23.26
6. Social Scientists	20	91	21.98
7. Mathematicians, Statisticians, Auditors and Accountants	10	37	27.03
8. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	20	186	10.75
TOTAL	170	1136	14.96

Note : Census of India, 1981, Uttar Pradesh Series 22, Part-III A+B(viii)

\* Refers to only university and degree college teachers on the basis of information collected by the researchers.

into the problems and the socio-economic characteristics of these workers.

This will help in identifying the factors which encourage or restrict the participation of women in highly paid occupations. This will also throw light on their economic contribution to the household and the society and its impact on their status. The study will also throw light on the issues of discrimination and violation of protective legislative measures.

We will examine the existence of role conflict amongst professional workers and analyse their level of job satisfaction. The study will therefore highlight the status and problems faced by these women workers on the basis of which suitable suggestions can be made to improve their status in the workforce and increase the number of women entering the professional cadres.

## NOTES

1. The study by Durand has been conducted on the basis of a study of employment trends in 100 countries.
2. Feminist theories also state that the subordinate position of women in the labour market and in the home/family are interrelated and part of an overall social system in which women are subordinate to men (Sokoloff, 1980; Hartmann, 1976; Farley, 1978).
3. The same trend has been observed by Rijke (1984) on the female labour force in Holland. She observed that women are concentrated in low level jobs in most occupations.
4. Beller (1982) observes that this is so because of larger employment opportunities for women in administrative and managerial cadres.
5. Attwood and McAndrew (1984) observed that wages are below average in all the sectors where women predominate in the U.S.S.R.
6. Durand found that women's share in these activities was relatively high at 31.6 per cent in Latin America, and generally low in Arab and Muslim countries at 12.5 per cent and 16.1 per cent respectively.
7. See Mathews (1979) and Gulati (1981) for detailed analysis of women workers in the unorganised sector.



## CHAPTER II

Structure of Female Work Force in LucknowII.0 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to discuss the level of work force participation rates (WFPR) and occupational pattern of female workers in Lucknow. This will provide a background for the detailed study of female professional workers in the city which is taken up in the following chapters. The study of the occupational pattern will reveal the economic status and changes in the pattern of employment of female workers as a consequence of the spread of education and economic development.

The analysis is based on Census data for 1971 and 1981. The year 1961 was not taken into account as the work force data of 1961 is not strictly comparable with that of the later Census reports due to conceptual changes. It should also be pointed out that the analysis is based on data for urban areas of Lucknow District as a whole as detailed data of Lucknow urban agglomeration were not available at the time of the study. However, this does not materially affect our study as there is no

other town of substantial size in Lucknow District. In fact total population of Lucknow agglomeration accounts for 95.1 per cent of total population of Lucknow District (urban) .

Our main focus in this chapter will be on the growth and structure of urban workers in Lucknow as our sample universe is the same, though, for comparative purposes data for Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) as a whole has also been given. Analysis of the occupational pattern will help us to understand the overall direction of the changes in the position of female workers in Lucknow urban. We will also focus on the level of sex-segregation of jobs in the urban labour market of Lucknow.

## II.1 Work Participation Rates

Table II.1 shows the WFPR of rural and urban workers in U.P. and Lucknow District in 1971 and 1981. The female WFPR is extremely low in both U.P. (5.40 per cent) and Lucknow District (3.62 per cent) and much lower compared with that of male workers in 1981. It is marginally higher in urban areas of Lucknow (3.70 per cent) though it is lowest in urban U.P. (2.99 per cent). As compared

Table II.1 : Workers Participation Rates (Main Workers) by Rural and Urban Areas and by Sex in 1971 and 1981 in Uttar Pradesh and Lucknow District

Areas	1971			1981		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
<u>Rural</u>						
i. U.P.	52.99	7.27	31.48	50.98	5.90	29.71
ii. Lucknow District	55.60	3.73	31.71	54.09	3.54	30.69
<u>Urban</u>						
i. U.P.	47.85	3.10	27.67	47.30	2.99	26.99
ii. Lucknow District	47.92	3.56	27.81	47.72	3.70	27.70
<u>TOTAL</u>						
i. U.P.	52.24	6.71	30.94	50.31	5.40	29.23
ii. Lucknow District	51.67	3.64	29.73	50.71	3.62	29.12

Note : Census of India 1971, Series 21 U.P., Part II B(i), General Economic Tables, Census of India 1981, Series 22 U.P., Part III A+B(i), General Economic Tables.

with 1971 there has been a general decline in WFPR of workers in U.P. and Lucknow District except for urban female workers of Lucknow where there is a marginal increase over the decade (from 3.56 per cent in 1971 to 3.70 per cent in 1981). The urban female WFPR in metro-police cities of Delhi and Bombay is considerably higher than that of Lucknow urban - 6.55 per cent and 8.56 per cent respectively, indicating that industrialisation and modernisation has favourably affected the WFPR of urban female workers. But even in these cities it is extremely low and much lower as compared with male workers.

This low level of female WFPR reflects the impact of social values and customs which do not favour participation of women in economic activities outside their home. Thus, in spite of the high female literacy rate of 47.84 per cent in urban Lucknow women are not participating in economic activity. As a result, a significant part of our human resources are not being integrated into the process of development.

## II.2 Growth Rate of Workers

In Lucknow urban female participation in economic activity has increased from 13,269 in 1971 to 17,829 in

1981. But they still constitute a very small proportion of the total work force, i.e., 5.6 per cent in 1971 and 5.7 per cent in 1981 (Table II.2). In both the years the proportion of female workers to total workers was marginally higher in urban areas compared with rural areas. This reflects economic necessity on one side and impact of education and urbanisation on the other. In Lucknow urban the proportion of female workers to total workers has increased from 5.8 per cent to 6.1 per cent in 1971 and 1981 respectively. The dynamics of underlying factors will be clear when we discuss the changes in industrial and occupational distribution of the female work force in Lucknow urban.

Table II.2 : Distribution of Main Workers in Lucknow District by Rural and Urban Areas and by Sex in 1971 and 1981

Area	(Nos.)					
	1971			1981		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural	238255 (94.6)	13646 (5.4)	251901 (100.00)	277379 (94.7)	15638 (5.3)	293017 (100.00)
Urban	215747 (94.2)	13269 (5.8)	229016 (100.00)	275751 (93.9)	17829 (6.1)	293580 (100.00)
TOTAL	454002 (94.4)	26915 (5.6)	480917 (100.00)	553130 (94.3)	33467 (5.7)	586597 (100.00)

Source : Census Reports.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total workers.

A significant observation from Table II.3 is that the per cent growth of female workers was higher (24.34) compared to male workers (21.83) during 1971-81 in Lucknow District. This is in direct contradiction with figures of U.P. where per cent change in female workers is less (1.26) when compared with male workers (20.47) over the same period. In Lucknow District we observe rural-urban differences in occupational changes. In rural areas, the per cent increase of female workers is lower (14.60) compared with male workers (16.42). Whereas, in urban areas the reverse holds good with a higher per cent increase of female (34.37) over male (27.81) workers. This

Table II.3 : Growth of Main Workers in Lucknow District During 1971 and 1981

Area	Actual Increase			Per cent Increase		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural	39,124	1,992	41,116	16.42	14.60	16.32
Urban	60,004	4,560	64,564	27.81	34.37	28.19
TOTAL	99,128	6,552	105,680	21.83	24.34	21.97

Source : Based on Table II.2.



may indicate restricted employment opportunities in rural areas for female workers as compared with urban areas. In urban areas of Lucknow, the number of female workers increased by 4560 whereas, in rural areas the increase was only 1992. This also indicates that modernisation of agriculture in the state has adversely affected the female labour force in rural areas.

### II.3 Industrial Distribution of Work Force

Sectoral trends in the occupational pattern indicate the stage of development of the economy. The study of sectoral changes in the female labour force will indicate the areas which are providing more avenues of employment to women, thus, reflecting changes in their overall economic status. The analysis in this and the following sections is confined to Lucknow urban which is the universe for the present study. As shown in Table II.4, the growth of female workers is significantly higher (34.37) as compared to male workers (27.81 per cent), particularly so in the category of trade and commerce, transport, storage and communications and other than household industry. The urban workforce is generally concentrated in the tertiary sector.

**Table II.4 :** Distribution of Main Workers and Their Growth Rate by Industrial Category in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Industrial Divisions	1971			1981			Percent Change	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1. Cultivators	4264	205	4469	6335	164	6449	48.57	-20.00
2. Agricultural Labourers	2799	402	3181	6311	448	6759	127.10	11.44
3. Livestock, Forestry, Fishing etc.	1437	72	1509	2679	75	2754	86.43	4.17
4. Mining and Quarrying	133	1	134	118	-	118	-11.28	-100.00
Total Primary Sector	8613	680	9293	15443	687	16080	79.30	1.03
5. Manufacturing, Processing and Servicing								
a. Household Industry	9650	622	10272	14648	745	15393	51.79	19.77
b. Other Than Household Industry	36213	829	37042	42782	1049	43831	18.14	26.54
6. Construction	3448	45	3493	5432	48	5480	57.54	6.67
Total Secondary Sector	49311	1496	50807	62862	1842	64704	27.48	23.13
7. Trade and Commerce	41985	958	42943	46874	1617	48491	11.64	68.79
8. Transport, Storage and communications	31174	467	31641	35518	670	36188	13.93	43.47
9. Other Services	84664	9668	94332	115054	13013	128067	35.89	34.60
Total Tertiary Sector	157823	11093	168916	197446	15300	212746	25.11	37.92
TOTAL WORKERS (Primary + Secondary + Tertiary Sector)	215747	13269	229016	275751	17829	293530	27.81	34.37

Source : Census Reports.

The growth of female workers in the primary sector is minimal (1.03 per cent). In fact there is a negative growth in the categories of cultivators and mining and quarrying. In U.P. there is a negative growth of female workers in the primary sector. Comparatively the growth of male workers is substantial in the primary sector (79.30 per cent) in Lucknow urban.

In the secondary sector, female workers have registered a slightly lower growth as compared with male workers. The growth of female workers is relatively higher in the category of other than household industry. This is in accordance with the all India figures where the fastest growing segment in the manufacturing sector is the non-household one in urban areas over 1971-81. In Lucknow urban the growth of women in the construction industry is much lower (6.67 per cent) as compared to men (57.54 per cent). A significant observation is that the growth rate of females in the tertiary sector is much higher (37.92 per cent) than that of males (25.11 per cent). There is a particularly high growth of females in trade and commerce (68.79 per cent) followed by transport, storage and communications.

A clearer view of the trends in economic participation of women is observed by looking into their per cent distribution in various sectors (Table II.5). Here again we observe that the proportion of females is highest in the tertiary sector. In the primary sector there is a decline in the percentage of female workers in all the categories. This decline is due to the implementation of advanced technology in agricultural areas. Also, due to the pressures of poverty and landlessness females turn to other sectors for employment.

The manufacturing or secondary sector has registered a decline in the proportion of female workers to their work force from 11.27 per cent in 1971 to 10.33 per cent in 1981. The highest proportion of female workers are in the category of other than household industry in both 1971 and 1981. The reason for the decline of female workers is the structural changes in industry through modernisation. Inadequate industrial training and lack of adequate educational opportunities also restricts the entry of female workers in this sector.

The largest proportion of the female work force is in the tertiary sector over the period under study. Between 1971 and 1981 the share of female workers has



Table II.5 : Per Cent Distribution of Main Workers by Industrial Category in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Industrial Divisions	1971			1981			Change in Percent Po- int During 1971-1981		
	Male		Female	Male		Female	Male		Female
	Total			Total			Total		
1. Cultivators	1.98	1.54	1.95	2.30	0.92	2.20	0.32	-0.62	0.25
2. Agricultural Labourers	1.30	3.03	1.39	2.29	2.51	2.30	0.99	-0.52	0.91
3. Livestock, Forestry, Fishing, etc.	0.67	0.54	0.66	0.97	0.42	0.94	0.30	-0.12	0.28
4. Mining and Quarrying	0.06	Neg*	0.06	0.04	0.00	0.04	-0.02	NA	-0.02
Total Primary Sector	4.01	5.12	4.06	5.60	3.85	5.48	1.59	-1.27	1.42
5. Manufacturing, Processing and Servicing									
a. Household Industry	4.47	4.69	4.49	5.31	4.18	5.24	0.84	-0.51	0.75
b. Other than Household Industry	16.78	6.25	16.17	15.51	5.88	14.93	-1.27	-0.37	-1.24
6. Construction	1.60	0.34	1.53	1.97	0.27	1.84	0.37	-0.07	0.31
Total Secondary Sector	22.86	11.27	22.18	22.80	10.33	22.04	-0.06	-0.94	-0.14
7. Trade and Commerce	19.46	7.22	18.75	17.00	9.07	16.52	-2.46	1.85	-2.23
8. Transport, Storage and Communi- cation	14.45	3.52	13.82	12.88	3.76	12.33	-1.57	0.24	-1.49
9. Other Services	39.24	72.86	41.19	41.72	72.99	43.62	2.48	0.13	2.43
Total Tertiary Sector	73.15	83.60	73.76	71.60	85.82	72.47	-1.55	2.22	-1.29
TOTAL WORKERS (Primary + Secondary + Tertiary Sector)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	NA	NA	NA

\* Neg = Negligible percentage.

Source : Based on Table II.2.

increased in all the categories of this sector. The category of "other services" forms the largest avenue of employment for women (72.86 per cent in 1971 and 72.99 per cent in 1981). There has been an increase of 1.85 per cent point in the proportion of women workers in trade and commerce indicating that women have started entering this sector even though it is male dominated. A very small proportion of female workers are in transport, storage and communications. This significant proportion of women in the tertiary sector is due to the spread of women's education, increasing tendency of urban educated women to enter paid employment due to economic pressures and expansion of employment opportunities in the services sector resulting from increasing rate of development (National Commission on Women, 1974, p.201).

We conclude that the industrial distribution of female workers is less diversified as compared to that of male workers. There is a marked segregation of female workers in the category of "other services" consisting of social and personal services.



#### II.4 Occupational Pattern

Further insights into the structure of the city's economy can be gained by focusing on the occupational distribution of the workers. Table II.6 throws light on this distribution of workers in Lucknow urban. Growth of non-agricultural workers in 1971-81 was higher for female workers (35.97 per cent) as compared to male workers (26.07 per cent). This implies that employment opportunities for women in non-agricultural activities is increasing due to the expansion of these sectors as a result of increasing economic development. As regards female workers, the highest growth has taken place in the category of workers not classified by occupation (2303.30 per cent) followed by clerical workers (175.41 per cent) and administrative, executive and managerial workers (132.50 per cent). Over 1971-81 there has been a decline in absolute numbers of female workers in services, farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers and related workers and production and related workers. Females in clerical, sales and miscellaneous cadres have registered a higher growth than males whereas, female administrative executive and managerial workers have a significantly lower growth than that of male workers.

Table II.6 : Distribution of Main Workers Other Than Cultivators and Agricultural Labourers and Their Growth Rates by Occupational Divisions in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Occupational Divisions	1971			1981			Per Cent Change Between 1971 - 1981	
	Male		Total	Male		Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1. Professional, Technical and Related Workers	15465	4540	20005	20992	6584	27576	35.74	45.02
2. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	2496	80	2576	9160	186	9346	266.99	132.50
3. Clerical and Related Workers	41727	923	42650	46087	2542	48629	10.45	175.41
4. Sales Workers	31748	835	32583	36623	1111	37734	15.36	33.05
5. Service Workers	24928	3675	28603	22923	2563	25486	-8.04	-30.26
6. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunters, Loggers and Related Workers	2455	102	2557	2370	59	2429	-3.46	-42.16
7. Production and Related Workers, Transport Equipment Operators and Labourers	83,570	2416	85986	83439	1986	85425	-0.16	-17.80
8. Workers Not Classified by Occupation	6315	91	6406	41509	2187	43696	557.31	2303.30
<b>TOTAL WORKERS</b>	<b>208704</b>	<b>12662</b>	<b>221366</b>	<b>263103</b>	<b>17217</b>	<b>280320</b>	<b>26.07</b>	<b>35.97</b>

Source : Census of India 1971, Series 21, U.P. Part II B (iii) + (iv), General Economic Tables.  
Census of India 1981, Series 22, U.P., Part III A+B (vii), General Economic Tables.

Analysing the occupational distribution of female workers we observe that both in 1971 and 1981, the highest percentage of women workers was in the category of professional technical and related workers - 35.86 per cent and 38.24 per cent respectively - as shown in Table II.7. In 1971, service workers constituted a fair proportion of women workers (29.02 per cent). Their proportion however, fell significantly in 1981 to only 14.89 per cent. There has been a general decline in number of workers and proportion of workers in this category. The proportion of female clerical and related workers to total women workers has more than doubled from 7.29 per cent in 1971 to 14.76 per cent in 1981. Administrative, executive and managerial workers constitute the lowest proportion of female workers in 1971 (0.63 per cent) and this has increased marginally to 1.08 per cent in 1981. The largest decline of women workers in terms of proportion to total female workers has been for service workers - a decline of -14.13 per cent points from 29.02 per cent in 1971 to 14.89 per cent in 1981. Whereas, the highest increase in per cent points over 1971-81 has been for workers not classified by occupation (11.98) followed by clerical workers (7.47 per cent).

Table II.7 : Per Cent Distribution of Main Workers Other Than Cultivators and Agricultural Labourers by Occupational Divisions in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Occupational Divisions	1971			1981			Change in Percent Point During 1971-1981	
	Male		Total	Male		Total	Male	Female
	Male	Female		Male	Female			
1. Professional, Technical and Related Workers	7.41	35.86	9.04	7.98	38.24	9.84	0.57	2.38
2. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1.20	0.63	1.16	3.48	1.08	3.33	2.28	0.45
3. Clerical and Related Workers	20.00	7.29	19.27	17.52	14.76	17.35	-2.48	7.47
4. Sales Workers	15.21	6.59	14.72	13.92	6.45	13.46	-1.29	-0.14
5. Service Workers	11.94	29.02	12.92	8.71	14.89	9.09	-3.23	-14.13
6. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunters, Loggers and Related Workers	1.18	0.81	1.16	0.90	0.34	0.87	-0.28	-0.47
7. Production and Related Workers, Transport Equipment Operators and Labourers	40.04	19.08	38.84	31.71	11.54	30.47	-8.33	-7.54
8. Workers not Classified by Occupation	3.03	0.72	2.89	15.78	12.70	15.59	12.75	11.98
TOTAL WORKERS	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	NA	NA

Source : Based on Table II.6.

From the above analysis, it is evident that there is segregation in the urban labour market as women workers are heavily concentrated in professional, clerical and sales cadres - they constitute almost 70 per cent of the total women workers in non-agricultural activities. The occupational pattern is shifting more in favour of these sectors and away from the services sector. The decline in proportion of female production and related workers shows that the present pattern of industrial growth is not favouring female workers in this segment. The substantial increase in workers not classified by occupation reflects the growth of the informal sector, particularly activities which provide employment for women from poorer sections of the population.

#### II.5 Distribution Pattern of Professional, Technical and Related Workers

We have observed above that the highest proportion of women workers is concentrated in the category of professional, technical and related workers in both 1971 and 1981 in Lucknow urban. Our sample is also based on selected groups of women workers in this category. It is



therefore important to analyse the occupational pattern of these workers to gauge the overall direction of change regarding the position of females in this category. Significantly the growth of female workers in this category is also higher than that of male workers. The factors responsible for increased participation of women in this sector is the expansion of women's education in the post-independence era particularly higher education; emancipation born out of necessity (National Commission on Women, para 51 213(c); attitudinal change in society regarding women's employment.

Table II.8 shows the distribution of workers in various occupational groups of professional, technical and related workers. Almost three-fourths of female workers in this category are concentrated in the teaching profession both in 1971 and 1981. The second largest chunk of the female labour force is in nursing and other medical health technicians - 17.53 per cent and 11.06 per cent in 1981. Physicians and surgeons is the third category of workers which constitutes a fair proportion of all women workers in this section - 2.11 per cent and 4.97 per cent in 1971 and 1981 respectively.



Table II.8 : Per Cent Distribution of Professional, Technical and Related Workers by Occupational Groups in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Occupational Group	1971			1981			Change in Percent Po- nt During 1971-1981		
	Male		Total	Male		Total	Male		Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0									
1. Physical Scientist	1.36	0.22	1.10	1.48	0.07	1.15	0.12	-0.15	0.05
2. Physical Science Technician	1.69	0.22	1.35	0.77	0.17	0.62	-0.92	-0.05	-0.73
3. Architects, Engineers, Technologi- sts and Surveyors	7.04	0.11	5.46	13.85	0.58	10.68	6.81	0.47	5.22
4. Engineering Technicians	13.97	0.33	10.87	13.00	0.73	10.06	-0.97	0.40	-0.81
5. Aircraft and Ship Officers	0.45	0.00	0.35	0.10	0.00	0.08	-0.35	0.00	-0.27
6. Life Scientists	0.61	0.33	0.55	0.30	0.17	0.27	-0.31	0.16	-0.28
7. Physicians and Surgeons	12.81	2.11	10.38	10.99	4.97	9.55	-1.82	2.86	-0.83
8. Life Science Technicians	0.48	0.22	0.42	0.30	0.00	0.23	-0.18	-0.22	-0.19
9. Nursing and Other Medical Health Technicians	3.63	17.53	6.78	1.79	11.06	4.00	-1.84	-6.47	-2.78
10. Technical Persons	1.69	0.33	1.38	0.26	0.00	0.20	-1.43	-0.33	-1.18

Contd.../-

Table II.8 Contd.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Mathematicians, Statisticians and Related Workers	1.03	0.11	0.82	0.61	0.07	0.49	-0.42	-0.04	-0.33
12. Economists and Related Workers	0.16	0.00	0.12	0.02	0.07	0.04	-0.14	0.07	-0.08
13. Accountants, Auditors and Related Workers	9.42	0.11	7.31	14.98	0.49	11.52	5.56	0.38	4.21
14. Social Scientists and Related Workers	1.49	1.54	1.50	1.61	1.31	1.54	0.12	-0.23	0.04
15. Jurists	5.99	0.33	4.70	8.70	0.65	6.78	2.71	0.32	2.08
16. Teachers	26.16	72.71	36.72	22.32	76.81	35.33	-3.84	4.10	-1.39
17. Poets, Authors, Journalists and Related Workers	1.42	0.66	1.25	1.00	0.24	0.82	-0.42	-0.42	-0.43
18. Sculptors, Painters, Photographers and Creative Artists	2.24	0.00	1.73	2.45	0.24	1.92	0.21	0.24	0.19
19. Composers and Performing Artists	2.53	2.11	2.43	1.92	1.87	1.91	-0.61	-0.24	-0.52
20. Professional Workers n.e.c.	5.84	1.01	4.74	3.54	0.49	2.81	-2.30	-0.52	-1.93
TOTAL WORKERS	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	NA	NA	NA

Source : Based on Census Reports.

A significant observation is that only in the teaching and nursing profession, the per cent share of female workers is much higher than that of male workers. In all the other occupational groups the share of women workers is very little and much below that of male workers, specifically in the categories of architects, engineers, etc., engineering technicians, accountants and auditors etc. and jurists. The largest increase in per cent share of female workers has been in the teaching profession (increase of 4.10 per cent between 1971-81) followed by physicians and surgeons (2.86 per cent between 1971-81). Female workers in the nursing profession have registered the largest decline in per cent points (6.47) over the same period.

Teaching has always been accorded a high status in Indian society. It is also a preferred occupation because <sup>it gives</sup> women comparatively more time for household duties as working hours are limited. Furthermore, it requires little training. The Census data shows that in Lucknow urban a majority of female teachers are in primary and middle schools where the salary structure is also lower. Another profession which is respected

and accepted for women is the medical profession. Thus there is an increasing proportion of women workers here. It may be noted that here too sex-segregation exists within this profession as a majority of women doctors are in "female" departments like gynaecology and paediatrics.

Despite this clear sex-segregation, there is a change in the occupational pattern of female workers as we observe that increasing proportions of women are entering into male-dominated professions. This is particularly marked in the categories of architects and engineers, etc. auditors and accountants, etc., engineering technicians and jurists. This change is significant as it reflects a change in social attitudes and opening of more avenues of employment for women. If women have an unrestricted choice of profession, it will finally result in a reduction in the extent of sex-segregation of the labour market.

#### II.6 Changes in the Pattern of Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers

We now examine the present distribution of administrative, executive and managerial workers in Lucknow

urban. This segment of workers also comprises a part of our sample universe. We have observed earlier in Table II.6 that female workers in this category have registered a much higher than average growth of female workers - 132.50 per cent between 1971-81. A majority of women workers in this category are employed in government and local bodies (63.44 per cent) because as Lucknow is an administrative city there are a large number of government run and aided organisations (Table II.9). The next most important group of females workers is that of other services (17.20 per cent). In both these categories and that of wholesale and retail trade, the proportion of female administrative and executive workers <sup>total</sup> exceeds that of female workers. In the case of the manufacturing sector and financial institutions, the proportion of female workers is much lower compared with male workers. And in the category of transport, storage and communications there is no representation of female workers. In 1981 two new occupational groups have reported female representation viz. wholesale and retail traders and financial institutions. Here again we observe a segregation of the labour market due to gender as women are concentrated in specific categories specially government and local bodies and other services.



Table II.9 : Per Cent Distribution of Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers by Occupational Groups in Lucknow Urban in 1971 and 1981

Occupational Groups	1971			1981		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1. Elected and Legislative members	4.81	25.00	5.43	0.35	0.00	0.34
2. Administrative and Executive Officials, Govt. and Local Bodies	30.53	43.75	30.94	50.78	63.44	51.03
3. Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers, Wholesale and Retail Trade	3.85	0.00	3.73	1.58	8.60	1.72
4. Directors and Managers, Financial Institutions	8.95	0.00	8.58	11.29	5.91	11.18
5. Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers, Mining, Construction, Manufacturing and related concerns	11.86	6.25	11.68	26.40	4.84	25.97
6. Working Proprietors, Directors and Managers and Related Executives, Transport, Storage and Communications	3.61	0.00	3.49	2.16	0.00	2.12
7. Working Proprietors, Directors, Managers Other Services	35.30	25.00	34.98	6.72	17.20	6.93
8. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1.20	0.00	1.16	0.72	0.00	0.71
TOTAL WORKERS	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source : Census Reports.



## II.7 Conclusions

We now sum up the major findings of the above discussion. A disturbing observation is that the female WFPR of Lucknow urban and U.P. is extremely low and much lower compared with that of male WFPR. There has also been a general decline in the WFPR of total workers between 1971-81 only the female WFPR in Lucknow urban has increased marginally. This low level of women's participation reflects the adverse affects of social values and attitudes towards females in employment. Despite a high literacy rate in Lucknow urban, women are not being integrated into the process of development.

Though female participation in economic activity has increased between 1971-81 in urban Lucknow, they still constitute a very small proportion of total workers. However, their proportion was marginally higher in urban areas compared with rural areas indicating a favourable impact of education and urbanisation. Significantly the per cent growth of female urban workers was higher than that of male workers. The reverse holds good for rural workers showing that modernisation of agriculture has adversely affected the female worker in rural areas.

The female urban work force in Lucknow is largely concentrated in the tertiary sector. The primary sector has shown a decline in proportion of female workers over 1971-81 due to implementation of advanced technology in agricultural areas. The manufacturing sector has also shown a decline in proportion of female workers due to structural changes in industry through modernisation which retrenches women workers as they lack adequate industrial training. Thus, we find that the labour market is segregated as the tertiary sector not only accounts for the highest proportion of women workers but also shows the fastest growing sector in terms of women's employment. This rapid expansion is due to increased level of education for women, increased economic pressure and expanding employment opportunities for women in this sector.

The occupational pattern of non-agricultural workers also shows segregation of women in specific types of occupations in the city. Sex-segregation of the labour market occurs as a result of social beliefs and attitudes which place women in a secondary position resulting in

restricted occupational choices and an over-supply of candidates for "women's" jobs (Bergmann, 1974). Thus women are heavily concentrated in professional, clerical and sales cadres. Female workers in these categories have also registered a higher growth rate than male workers. There has been a substantial increase in female workers not classified by occupation, reflecting the growth of the informal sector.

Within professional, technical and related workers there is a clear segregation of the labour market due to gender as females are basically concentrated in the teaching, nursing and medical profession in the city. This corroborates our hypothesis that urban educated women workers are concentrated in specific occupations like teaching, nursing, etc. This occurs as certain jobs are considered "feminine" and there are traditionally accepted occupations for women like teaching and medicine. Sex-segregation leads to lowering of incomes of women workers because they are competing among themselves for a relatively few jobs in an overcrowded segment of the labour market. This is observed in the case of nurses in Lucknow city, where their earnings are extremely low

due to the "feminisation" of this profession (Singh, 1981). Despite this segregation of the labour market, there is a change in the occupational pattern in Lucknow as increasing proportion of women are entering male-dominated occupations. Also women are entering new occupations for the first time though in small numbers. Women in administrative, executive and managerial cadres have reported a much higher than average growth rate. Yet again we note segregation of women in specific categories like government and local bodies and other services. However, here again women have entered into new occupations for the first time.

To sum up, there is a clear segregation of labour market in the city at the sectoral, occupational and intra occupation levels. Also the female WFPR and growth is extremely low. However, with increasing educational levels and rapid development women have started entering non-traditional occupations thus reflecting the emergence of a positive change in social attitudes and beliefs regarding women in the labour force.

## CHAPTER III

Socio-Economic CharacteristicsIII.0 Introduction

Socio-cultural restrictions on women limit not only the supply of women available for work, but also the demand for women workers (Anker and Hein, 1986, p.36). This is of particular importance for the Indian woman worker as her behavioural pattern within the workforce and in the household is predominantly governed by deep-rooted socio-cultural beliefs and attitudes. Societal factors play an instrumental role in her being part of the labour force. The social framework in our country has undergone dramatic changes in this century and as a result of these changes there has been an encouraging increase in the number of women workers.<sup>1</sup> Religion, caste, educational background and parental background can act both as a stimulant towards a changed role and perception of the Indian woman, and can also prove to be an impediment in their path. In a large number of studies these characteristics have been found to have a significant influence on the employment structure (Ahmad, 1979; Talwar, 1984; Chaturvedi, 1985; Sharan, 1987; Jain, 1988). These variables also throw light upon the types of occupations that urban educated women prefer (Srivastava, 1978).



In the present Chapter we have discussed the various socio-economic characteristics of the selected professional women workers of Lucknow. The Chapter is divided into four sections. Section one deals with social characteristics such as religion, caste, educational background and professional training. Section two analyses the employment and occupational status of the respondents and the household members. Section three deals with the parental background of the respondents. Variables, such as, size of family, educational and occupational background of the members and their employment status, with emphasis on the employment status of female members, of the parental family are studied here. The last section summarizes the conclusions derived from the above three sections.

### III.1 Social Characteristics

III.1.1 Religion : Religion provides the ideological bases for the given status and institutionalised roles of women in the society. Social restrictions on women are derived from religious conceptions of the basic characteristics of women (National Commission on Women 1974, p.38). Table III.1 reveals that 88.8 per



cent of the respondents are Hindus. This is distinctly higher than the proportion of Hindus in the total population of Lucknow urban (69.8 per cent).<sup>2</sup> Our study thus shows that the proportion of women with higher

Table III.1 : Distribution of Respondents by Religion

Categories	(Nos.)					Total
	Hindu	Muslim	Sikh	Chris- tian	Jain	
1. Scientists	16 (80.0)	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	18 (90.0)	-	-	-	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	16 (80.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	3 (15.0)	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	18 ( 90.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	17 (85.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statistician	10 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative Executive and Managerial Workers	18 (90.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	151 (88.8)	6 ( 3.5)	5 ( 2.9)	3 ( 1.8)	5 ( 2.9)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

education is more in the case of Hindus than in other communities. The other communities account for a smaller proportion of the sample, in relation to their total population in the city, except for Jains who are over represented in the sample.<sup>3</sup>

A striking discrepancy is observed in the case of the Muslim community. Though they form 27.9 per cent of the population of Lucknow city, in the present sample they are merely 3.5 per cent of the total sample. A major factor for this is the seclusion of women in Islam (National Commission on Women 1974, p.44). In the poorer sections women work due to economic necessity. But the present survey covers middle and upper class families where it is observed that Muslim women enter the labour-force in limited numbers. Another interesting fact revealed by the table is that the entire representation of Christians in the sample is from the category of degree college teachers and that too from one particular college which is a minority institution.

III.1.2 Caste : Table III.2 highlights the fact that among Hindu respondents the largest representation is of Kayasths (29.1 per cent) followed by Brahmins (26.5 per cent) and Banias (25.2 per cent). Thus only

Table III.2 : Distribution of Hindu Respondents  
by Caste

(Nos.)

Category	Brah- min	Ksha- triya	Bania	Kaya- sth	Kha- tri	Total
1. Scientists	3 (18.8)	1 ( 6.3)	8 (50.0)	2 (12.5)	2 (12.5)	16 (100.0)
2. Doctors	5 (27.8)	1 ( 5.6)	5 (27.8)	5 (27.8)	2 (11.1)	18 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (43.8)	3 (18.8)	-	6 (37.5)	-	16 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	5 (27.8)	3 (16.7)	1 ( 5.6)	6 (33.3)	3 (16.7)	18 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (23.5)	-	9 (52.9)	3 (17.6)	1 ( 5.9)	17 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (11.1)	4 (22.2)	3 (16.7)	6 (33.3)	3 (16.7)	18 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountan- ts, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	1 (10.0)	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative Exe- cutive and Manage- rial Workers	6 (33.3)	1 ( 5.6)	4 (22.2)	5 (27.8)	2 (11.1)	18 (100.0)
TOTAL	40 (26.5)	15 ( 9.9)	38 (25.2)	44 (29.1)	14 ( 9.3)	151 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

the high caste women are entering the professional cadres. It has been observed that these castes have taken to western education and middle class occupations and are predominantly urban in their distribution

(Beteille, 1965, p.64). There is no representation of Scheduled Castes and Tribes and the Backward classes in the present sample. Thus the social framework is discriminatory against these workers (Saxena, 1965). Furthermore, economic and educational backwardness restrict their entry into the professional cadres which not only require a high educational level but also, in most occupations, professional training. The reservation policies have, however, failed to rectify the above mentioned factors restricting the entry of Scheduled Castes and Tribes and the Backward class into the professional cadres.

From Table III.2 we also observe that 50 per cent of scientists and architects and engineers belong to the Bania community, which, is much higher than their total representation in the sample. Similarly, Kshatriyas are over represented in college teachers, lawyers and social scientists. There is a larger representation of Khatri in lawyers and social scientists. In the case of Brahmins it is observed that they are very largely represented in the category of degree college teachers but there is a very low representation of them in scientists and in social scientists

(11.1 per cent). Kayasths are also under represented in scientists, architects and engineers.

III.1.3 Educational Background : The educational level of the respondent's household members is very high (Table III.3). Graduates and above comprise nearly 70 per cent of the total members. Comparing this to the number of graduates and above in the state and the city levels (1.36 per cent in U.P. and 1 per cent in Lucknow urban), it can be concluded that professional workers come from families that are well educated and belong to that privileged 1 per cent of the population of Lucknow city that are graduates and above. An interesting fact observed is that 0.7 per cent of the members were illiterate. Of the five cases of illiterates, three were mothers-in-law of the respondent and two were mothers of the respondent. All five members were above the age of 66 years. Education amongst women was not socially accepted in that period.<sup>4</sup> It is observed that a large proportion of family members of scientists and University teachers are doctorates. Also more than half of total post-doctorates are from the households of scientists and doctors.



Table III.3 : Distribution of Household Member Above Five Years of Age by Educational Level

Category	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	High School	Intermediate	Graduate	Post graduate	Doctorate	Post Doctorate	Total
1. Scientists	1 (1.2)	9 (11.0)	5 (6.1)	4 (4.9)	9 (11.0)	8 (9.8)	15 (18.3)	23 (28.0)	8 (9.8)	82 (100.0)
2. Doctors	1 (1.1)	10 (11.4)	3 (3.4)	7 (8.0)	4 (4.5)	13 (14.8)	37 (42.0)	4 (4.5)	9 (10.2)	88 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	2 (3.0)	6 (9.0)	3 (4.5)	5 (7.5)	10 (15.0)	30 (44.8)	9 (13.4)	2 (3.0)	67 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 (1.2)	9 (10.8)	5 (6.0)	5 (6.0)	8 (9.6)	8 (9.6)	21 (25.3)	24 (29.0)	2 (2.4)	83 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (2.0)	5 (4.9)	4 (3.9)	4 (3.9)	12 (11.8)	38 (37.3)	36 (35.3)	-	1 (1.0)	102 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	7 (8.8)	1 (1.3)	3 (3.8)	10 (12.5)	36 (45.0)	20 (25.0)	3 (3.8)	-	80 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	7 (9.9)	3 (4.2)	1 (1.4)	11 (15.5)	14 (19.7)	30 (42.3)	4 (5.6)	1 (1.4)	71 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	4 (10.3)	2 (5.1)	-	2 (5.1)	16 (41.0)	13 (33.3)	2 (5.1)	-	39 (100.0)
9. Administrative Executive and Managerial Workers	-	16 (23.2)	1 (1.4)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.4)	20 (29.0)	29 (42.0)	-	-	69 (100.0)
TOTAL	5 (0.7)	69 (10.1)	30 (4.4)	29 (4.3)	62 (9.1)	163 (23.9)	231 (33.9)	69 (10.1)	23 (3.4)	681 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.



The distribution of respondents by academic qualifications highlights the fact that the respondents belong to the highly educated category of the population (Table III.4). The table shows that 28.2 per cent of the respondents are graduates and 44.1 per cent are post-graduates. Around 90 per cent of doctorates were scientists, degree college and University teachers. This is so because a doctorate is a minimum requirement for these professions and it improves career prospects. Post-graduates have been largely represented in doctors, degree college teachers, social scientists and executive and managerial cadres. Graduates, however, have been over-represented in the categories of lawyers, architects and engineers and auditors and accountants.

III.1.4 Professional Training : Almost two-thirds of the respondents had undergone professional training (Table III.5). Nearly 70 per cent of the respondents without professional training were scientists, degree college and university teachers because in these occupations professional training is not required. In the case of teachers a few respondents have taken B.Ed. and M.Ed. degrees. In the rest of the categories a very

Table III.4 : Distribution of Respondents by Academic Qualifications

Category	(Nos.)									
	Graduates			Post-Graduates			Doctorates			OVERALL TOTAL
	Scie- nce	Arts/ Commer- ce/Law	Total	Scie- nce	Arts/ Commer- ce/Law	Total	Scien- ce	Arts	Total	
1. Scientists	-	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	7 (35.0)	-	7 (35.0)	12 (60.0)	-	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	14 (70.0)	14 (70.0)	-	6 (30.0)	6 (30.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	-	-	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	11 (55.0)	6 (30.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (10.0)	9 (45.0)	11 (55.0)	-	9 (45.0)	9 (45.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	18 (90.0)	-	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-	2 (10.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	-	-	-	17 (85.0)	17 (85.0)	-	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	5 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	5 (50.0)	-	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	-	6 (30.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	12 (60.0)	14 (70.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	28 (16.5)	20 (11.8)	48 (28.2)	18 (10.6)	57 (33.5)	75 (44.1)	32 (18.8)	15 (8.8)	47 (27.6)	170 (100.0)
										96 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis denote percentages.

Table III.5 : Distribution of Respondents by Professional Training

Category	(Nos.)				
	Gr- uate	Post Gradua- te	Docto- rate	Post Docto- rate	Dip- lo- ma
1. Scientists	-	-	-	-	2 (10.0)
2. Doctors	7 (35.0)	12 (60.0)	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	8 (40.0)
4. University Teachers	-	2 (10.0)	-	-	4 (20.0)
5. Lawyers	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	14 (70.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scien- tists	4 (20.0)	1 (5.0)	-	1 (5.0)	10 (50.0)
8. Auditors, Accoun- tants, Mathemati- cians and Statis- ticians	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	-	-	8 (80.0)
9. Administrative Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	-	-	14 (70.0)
TOTAL	53 (31.2)	29 (17.1)	-	2 (1.2)	106 (62.4)
					64 (37.6)
					170 (100.0)

Note : (1) In the category of doctors diploma is an added qualification, thus they have also been included in either graduates or post-graduates.  
(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

high proportion (100 per cent in doctors, lawyers, architects and engineers) of professionally trained women highlights the fact that a professional degree is a necessary requirement for entering these professions. The only exception is auditors and accountants where only 50 per cent of the respondents are professionally trained.

The table also shows that a large proportion of doctors, social scientists and administrators, executives and managers possess a post-graduate professional degree. Similarly a considerable proportion of architects and engineers and all lawyers possess a graduate professional degree. This is so because a graduate or post-graduate degree is a minimum qualification to enter the specific profession. It was also observed that significant number of diploma holders were doctors, degree college teachers, architects and engineers and social scientists. Thus all these respondents had acquired additional professional training. Only 1.9 per cent of professionally trained respondents possessed a post-doctorate professional degree.

### III.2 Employment and Occupational Status

III.2.1 Employment Status : A majority of the members of the respondents households are employed - 54.1 per cent (Table III.6). The number of housewives is much less (only 11.9 per cent) as compared to their numbers in the parental household (refer to Table III.12), because the present household has a nuclear structure, thereby, female workers, i.e. respondents, are also working, thus the number of housewives is very small. The percentage of students is considerably higher (21.5 per cent) as compared to parental households. The reason behind this could be that in parental households the age-group of members is much higher compared to members in present household. The number of unemployed members is negligible - merely 1 per cent of the total members. The unemployed members registered are both male and female thus showing no social bias against females entering the labourforce. An approximately similar pattern of employment status is observed amongst all the professional groups studied.

III.2.2 Occupational Status : Of the 387 economically active members of the present household, 51.7



Table III.6 : Distribution of Household Members According to Employment Status

Category	Children	Students	House- wives	Employ- ed	Unemp- loyed	Retired/ Disabled	Total
							(Nos.)
1. Scientists	6 (6.8)	25 (28.4)	9 (10.2)	46 (52.3)	-	2 ( 2.3)	88 (100.0)
2. Doctors	7 (7.3)	22 (22.9)	13 (13.5)	48 (50.0)	-	6 ( 6.3)	96 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (1.5)	15 (22.1)	8 (11.8)	39 (57.3)	1 (1.5)	4 ( 5.9)	68 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (2.4)	24 (28.2)	6 ( 7.1)	45 (52.9)	3 (3.5)	5 ( 5.9)	85 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	1 (1.0)	15 (14.6)	14 (13.6)	60 (58.3)	2 (2.0)	11 (10.7)	103 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	6 (7.0)	14 (16.3)	12 (14.0)	50 (58.1)	-	4 ( 4.7)	86 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	6 (7.8)	13 (16.9)	10 (13.0)	39 (50.6)	-	9 (11.7)	77 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (2.5)	6 (15.0)	7 (17.5)	21 (52.5)	1 (2.5)	4 (10.0)	40 (100.0)
9. Administrative Executive, and Managerial Workers	3 (4.2)	20 (27.8)	6 ( 8.3)	39 (54.2)	-	4 ( 5.6)	72 (100.0)
TOTAL	33 (4.6)	154 (21.5)	85 (11.9)	387 (54.1)	7 (1.0)	49 ( 6.9)	715 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



per cent are in government service (Table III.7), 16.3 per cent are in the teaching profession and 9 per cent in private service. A very low proportion of household members are in business or are self-employed professionals. A large percentage of the household members of scientists, architects and engineers, social scientists and administrative, executive and managerial workers are in government service. This shows a close affinity between professions of respondents and that of household members. A higher percentage of household members of architects and engineers and auditors and accountants are in private service. In business, the highest percentage is of household members of doctors. A considerable proportion of the respondents were private practitioners who require initially some fixed capital to start their practice, thus reinforcing the link between profession of respondent and that of family members. A large percentage of family members of doctors and lawyers were self-employed professionals and an extremely high proportion of university and degree college teachers' (57.8 and 53.8 per cent respectively) family members were in the teaching profession.

Table III.7 : Distribution of Household Members According to Occupation

Category	Govern- ment service	Private Service	Business	Self-Emplo- yed Profe- ssionals	Teachers	Any Others	Total (Nos.)
1. Scientists	33 (71.7)	1 (2.2)	5 (10.9)	2 (4.3)	4 (8.7)	1 (2.2)	46 (100.0)
2. Doctors	20 (41.7)	2 (4.2)	6 (12.5)	18 (37.5)	2 (4.2)	-	48 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	12 (30.8)	3 (7.7)	2 (5.1)	-	21 (53.8)	1 (2.6)	39 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	8 (17.8)	3 (6.7)	4 (8.9)	3 (6.7)	26 (57.8)	1 (2.2)	45 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	17 (28.3)	7 (11.7)	4 (6.7)	24 (40.0)	7 (11.7)	1 (1.7)	60 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	40 (80.0)	7 (14.0)	2 (4.0)	1 (2.0)	-	-	50 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	30 (76.9)	4 (10.3)	3 (7.7)	1 (2.6)	-	1 (2.6)	39 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	10 (47.6)	3 (14.3)	1 (4.8)	4 (19.0)	3 (14.3)	-	21 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial workers	30 (76.9)	5 (12.8)	3 (7.7)	1 (2.6)	-	-	39 (100.0)
TOTAL	200 (51.7)	35 (9.0)	30 (7.8)	54 (14.0)	63 (16.3)	5 (1.3)	387 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Analysing the distribution of respondents by occupation (Table III.8) the above mentioned factor of a close affinity between occupation of family members and that of respondents gets further strengthened. Here again we observe that 50 per cent of the respondents were in government service specially scientists, architects and engineers, social scientists and administrative, executive and managerial workers. A fairly high percentage of doctors, social scientists, auditors and accountants and administrative and executive workers were in private service. All the lawyers and a significant proportion of doctors were self-employed professionals.

A similar consistency between occupations is observed in the case of spouses in our study. The proportion of occupational consistency between spouses is relatively high. It has been observed that women are likely to work in occupations which are consistent in prestige with that of their husbands (Srivastava, 1978). Marital stability would be threatened by "occupationally deprived prestige rivalry" between spouses.<sup>5</sup> Thus women usually take up professions which are either equal or

Table III.8 : Distribution of Respondents by Occupation

Category	Govern- ment Service	Private Service	Business	Self-Emplo- yed Profe- ssionals	Teachers	Any Other Profess- ion	Total (Nos.)
1. Scientists	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	-	8 (40.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	18 (90.0)	-	-	-	-	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	7 (70.0)	2 (20.0)	-	1 (10.0)	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	88 (51.8)	9 (5.3)	2 (1.2)	29 (17.1)	40 (23.5)	2 (1.2)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

lower in prestige with their husbands. Table III.9 shows that, as far as total figures go, 58.6 per cent of the husbands are in government service which is in consonance with the fact that 51.8 per cent (Table III.8) of the respondents are also from government service and from the same categories of social scientists, architects and engineers and administrative, executive and managerial workers. In university teachers the proportion of spouses in the same profession is fairly high. Doctors and auditors and accountants have a high proportion of spouses who are self-employed professionals.

### III.3 Parental Background

This section throws light upon the size, educational level, employment status, occupation and income levels of the parental household. These variables have an important influence, and in some cases have a direct link, on the motivations given to the respondent to enter the workforce and also in choice of profession. Specific factors encouraging women to enter the workforce depend upon parental background. We have hypothesized that a major proportion of women professional workers belong to



Table III.2 : Distribution of Husbands of Respondents According to Occupation

Category	(Nos.)					
	Govern- ment Service	Private Service	Business	Self-Emplo- yed Profe- ssionals	Teachers	Any Other
1. Scientists	10 (59.8)	1 (5.9)	4 (23.5)	2 (11.8)	-	-
2. Doctors	7 (41.2)	-	3 (17.6)	7 (41.2)	-	-
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (58.3)	2 (16.7)	1 (8.3)	-	1 (8.3)	1 (8.3)
4. University Teachers	6 (40.0)	1 (6.7)	-	2 (13.3)	5 (33.3)	1 (6.7)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	-
6. Architects and Engi- neers	8 (66.7)	3 (25.0)	-	1 (8.3)	-	-
7. Social Scientists	8 (80.0)	-	2 (20.0)	-	-	-
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (33.3)	-	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	-	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	11 (91.7)	-	1 (8.3)	-	-	-
TOTAL	58 (58.6)	7 (7.1)	12 (12.1)	14 (14.1)	6 (6.1)	2 (2.0)
						99 (100.0)

Note : (1) Total figure includes spouse of divorced respondents also.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



urban middle class families, the following analysis will help us test this hypothesis.

III.3.1 Size : The average size of the parental household of the respondents is 4.5 (Table III.10). Four member households are just 12.3 per cent of total households in U.P. urban and 14.1 per cent in Lucknow urban (Census of India, 1981).<sup>6</sup> The table shows that 28.8 per cent of the households had between one to three member households. 46.4 per cent of the households fell in the range of four to five member households. Only 24.7 per cent of the households had six or more members. It was observed that scientists, university teachers and lawyers have a fairly large proportion of more than six member households. Thus they have a large family size compared with doctors, social scientists, auditors and accountants and administrative, executive and managerial workers where family size is less than five members. There is a significantly high proportion of auditors and accountants (55.0 per cent) with one to three member households.

III.3.2 Educational Background : From Table III.11 one observes that 76.3 per cent of the parental family

Table III.10 : Distribution of Parental Households According to Number of Household Members

Category	(Nos.)					Average Size of Household
	1 - 3	4 - 5	6 - 7	8 & Above	Total	
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	12 (60.0)	7 (35.0)	-	20 (100.0)	5.2
2. Doctors	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.1
3. Degree College Teachers	5 (25.0)	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)	5.0
4. University Teachers	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)	5.3
5. Lawyers	4 (20.0)	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.9
6. Architects and Engineers	11 (55.0)	8 (40.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	3.6
7. Social Scientists	7 (35.0)	9 (45.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.2
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	5 (50.0)	2 (20.0)	-	10 (100.0)	4.4
9. Administrative, Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	7 (35.0)	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.2
TOTAL	49 (28.8)	79 (46.4)	32 (18.8)	10 ( 5.9)	170 (100.0)	4.5

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Table III.11 : Distribution of Parental Household Members Above Five Years of Age by Educational Level

Category	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	High School	Intermediate	Graduate	Post-graduate	Doctorate	Post-Doctorate	Total
	(Nos.)									
1. Scientists	-	4 (3.9)	2 (1.9)	-	8 (7.8)	32 (31.1)	46 (44.7)	11 (10.7)	-	103 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	2 (2.5)	1 (1.2)	2 (2.5)	4 (4.9)	12 (14.8)	43 (53.1)	9 (11.1)	8 (9.9)	81 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	4 (4.0)	3 (3.0)	2 (2.0)	7 (7.1)	31 (31.3)	49 (49.5)	1 (1.0)	2 (2.0)	99 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 (1.0)	2 (1.9)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	11 (10.4)	33 (31.1)	49 (46.2)	7 (6.6)	1 (1.0)	106 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (2.1)	3 (3.1)	4 (4.1)	4 (4.1)	13 (13.4)	38 (39.2)	33 (34.0)	-	-	97 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	-	2 (2.8)	3 (4.2)	13 (18.1)	29 (40.3)	23 (31.9)	2 (2.8)	-	72 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	5 (6.0)	2 (2.4)	-	10 (12.0)	30 (36.1)	34 (41.0)	2 (2.4)	-	83 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	-	3 (6.8)	-	4 (9.1)	20 (45.5)	15 (34.1)	2 (4.5)	-	44 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	1 (1.2)	4 (4.8)	2 (2.4)	4 (4.8)	34 (40.5)	36 (42.9)	3 (3.6)	-	84 (100.0)
TOTAL	3 (0.4)	21 (2.7)	22 (2.9)	14 (1.8)	74 (9.6)	259 (33.7)	328 (42.7)	37 (4.8)	11 (1.4)	769 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

members are graduates and post-graduates, thus showing that the educational level of the parental family is very high compared to the state and city level of education. We can conclude that the respondents come from a highly educated parental background. Singh (1981) in her study of nurses in Lucknow city has observed that "to a large extent occupation and choice of profession depends upon the educational background of the parents". Enlightened and educated parents inspire and encourage their daughters to take up higher education and also professional training and enter the workforce. The parents motivate them to take up jobs that have hitherto been male-dominated. The women are thus able to break away from the shackles of orthodoxy and conservatism.

If we compare Table III.9 with Table III.10 we observe a linkage between size and educational level of parental family. One major reason for the relatively small family size is the fact that the parental family members of the respondents are highly educated, and are motivated to control the size of their family.

III.3.3 Employment Status : Table III.12 shows the employment status of the parental household members.

Table III.12 : Distribution of Members of Parental Household by Employment Status

Category						(Nos.)
	Stud- ents	House- wives	Employ- ed	Unemp- loyed	Retired/ Disab- led	Total
1. Scientists	3 ( 2.9)	34 (33.0)	56 (54.4)	-	10 ( 9.7)	103 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	23 (28.4)	44 (54.3)	1 ( 1.2)	13 (16.0)	81 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	6 ( 6.1)	27 (27.3)	52 (52.5)	2 ( 2.0)	12 (12.1)	99 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 ( 1.0)	29 (27.4)	58 (54.7)	-	18 (17.0)	106 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	16 (16.5)	12 (12.4)	57 (58.8)	2 ( 2.1)	10 (10.3)	97 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	11 (15.3)	17 (23.6)	36 (50.0)	2 ( 2.8)	6 ( 8.3)	72 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	6 ( 7.2)	22 (26.5)	38 (45.8)	-	17 (20.5)	83 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 ( 6.8)	10 (22.7)	26 (59.1)	1 ( 2.3)	4 ( 9.1)	44 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Exe- cutive and Managerial Workers	2 (2.4 )	25 (29.8)	44 (52.4)	-	13 (15.5)	84 (100.0)
TOTAL	48 ( 6.2)	199 (25.9)	411 (53.4)	8 ( 1.0)	103 (13.4)	769 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

53.4 per cent of the parental family members were employed. We thus observe that the parental households of these professional workers have a majority of their members in the labour force. The level of unemployment among the



parental family members was negligible (1 per cent). A disconcerting fact, however, is that the number of unemployed registered here are usually young females who have completed their studies and have not been able to get employment. No major differences were observed in the basic pattern of employment status across the various categories.

It would be interesting to examine the employment status of the female members of the parental household. From Table III.13 it is observed that 51.2 per cent of the female members of the parental household belong to the "non-working" category. The underlying fact is that a large proportion of these members are mothers or older relatives of the respondent and in that generation women from their socio-economic strata would seek employment only in exceptional cases. This phenomenon is explained by the fact that in that era though women's education was gaining popularity, it was only because it was felt that education would make women more capable of fulfilling their traditional roles as mothers and wives. The stress on incorporating women in the development process came forth in the post-independence era (National Commission on Women, 1974, pp.234-235). A



Table III.13 : Distribution of Female Members of Parental Household According to Employment Status

Category	(Nos.)				Total
	Students	Employed	Non-Working	Retired	
1. Scientists	1 ( 1.9)	18 (34.6)	33 (63.5)	-	52 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	14 (36.8)	24 (63.2)	-	38 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 ( 4.4)	16 (34.8)	28 (60.9)	-	46 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	25 (50.0)	23 (46.0)	2 (4.0)	50 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	8 (14.5)	32 (58.2)	15 (27.3)	-	55 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	5 (12.5)	16 (40.0)	18 (45.0)	1 (2.5)	40 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 2.5)	16 (40.0)	22 (55.0)	1 (2.5)	40 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 ( 4.4)	11 (47.8)	11 (47.8)	-	23 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	19 (44.2)	24 (55.8)	-	43 (100.0)
TOTAL	18 ( 4.7)	167 (43.2)	198 (51.2)	4 (1.0)	387 (100.0)

Note : (1) "Non-working" includes housewives and unemployed members.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

significantly large proportion of non-working female members came from the parental households of scientists (63.5 per cent), doctors (63.2 per cent) and degree college teachers (60.9 per cent). An interesting fact revealed by our survey is that 43.2 per cent of the female household members are employed, which is a significant proportion of the total female members. This brings to limelight the fact that the tradition of female participation in economic activity was already present in the parental households of these professional workers, ranging from minimum of 34.6 per cent in scientists to a maximum of 58.2 per cent in the case of lawyers. This fact has greatly affected the respondents participation in economic activity. The significantly high proportion of employed female members in the case of lawyers is due to the fact that the respondents in this category come from a lower age group and hence their parental family has been influenced by the post-independence thrust on "women's education should have a vocational or occupational bias" (Planning Commission, 1951). We thus observe that majority of the respondents in this group are second generation workers.

From Table III.14 we observe that only 9.4 per cent of the respondents had mothers in occupation, but a

Table III.14 : Distribution of Respondents with  
Mother's and/or Elder Sisters' in  
Occupation

Category	Number of Mothers in Occupation	Number of Elder Sis- ter in Occupation	Total
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)
2. Doctors	-	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	6 (30.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (10.0)	12 (60.0)	14 (70.0)
5. Lawyers	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	11 (55.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	9 (45.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	5 (50.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	9 (45.0)
TOTAL	16 ( 9.4)	57 (33.5)	73 (42.9)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentage to  
total respondents in that category.

significant proportion (33.5 per cent) of respondents had elder sisters in occupation. A high proportion of lawyers and architects and engineers had mothers in employment because these workers came from a relatively lower age-group as compared to the other categories. Surprisingly, none of the doctors had working mothers. University teachers, lawyers, auditors and accountants had a large proportion of elder sisters in occupation. A total of 42.9 per cent respondents had either mothers or elder sisters in occupation, reinforcing the above mentioned fact that respondents came from parental families where the concept of a "working woman" is clearly established.

III.3.4 Occupational Background : The occupational break-up of parental family members is shown in Table III.15. The table highlights the fact that approximately 75 per cent of the parental family member's of the respondents are from service class occupations. Within this a significant proportion (42.3 per cent) are in government service. Only in the case of degree college teachers and lawyers there is a significantly lower representation in government service. Social scientists

Table III.15 : Distribution of Employed Members of Parental Family by Occupation

Category	(Nos.)					Total
	Govern- ment Service	Private Service	Business	Self-Emplo- yed Profe- ssionals	Teachers	Other Profe- ssions
1. Scientists	23 (41.1)	13 (23.2)	3 (5.4)	4 (7.1)	13 (23.2)	- (100.0)
2. Doctors	17 (38.6)	6 (13.6)	14 (31.8)	3 (6.8)	4 (9.1)	- (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	17 (32.5)	13 (25.0)	4 (7.7)	3 (5.8)	12 (23.1)	3 (5.8)
4. University Teachers	23 (39.7)	11 (19.0)	5 (8.6)	5 (8.6)	13 (22.4)	1 (1.7)
5. Lawyers	18 (31.6)	7 (12.3)	3 (5.3)	21 (36.8)	7 (12.3)	1 (1.8)
6. Architects and Engineers	22 (61.1)	8 (22.2)	2 (5.6)	-	4 (11.1)	- (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	21 (55.3)	9 (23.7)	2 (5.3)	2 (5.3)	3 (7.9)	1 (2.6)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathema- ticians and Statisticians	12 (46.2)	4 (15.4)	5 (19.2)	2 (7.7)	3 (11.5)	- (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	21 (47.7)	10 (22.7)	4 (9.1)	1 (2.3)	7 (15.9)	1 (2.3)
Total	174 (42.3)	81 (19.7)	42 (10.2)	41 (10.0)	66 (16.1)	7 (1.7)
						411 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



(55.3 per cent) and architects and engineers (61.1 per cent) have a major proportion of parental family in government service. A large percentage of doctors (31.8 per cent) and auditors and accountants (19.2 per cent) family members are from the business class. This explains the fact that a considerable number of respondents in these categories are self-employed and they require capital to set up their practice, thus, they usually came from business class families. Almost 25 per cent of the family members of scientists, degree college and university teachers are in the teaching profession. All this analysis highlights the fact that the respondent's choice of profession is closely related to that of her parental family.

This finding is further reinforced by analysing the parental family members occupation by the professions taken up for the survey. Table III.16 shows that 50.2 per cent of the parental family members were in administrative, executive and managerial jobs. A close affinity in choice of profession of the respondent and the parental family is observed in the case of doctors (32.3 per cent) and administrative and executive workers (71.0 per cent) Barring the administrative occupational



Table III.16 : Distribution of Respondent's Parental Family Members by Occupation

Category	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
1. Scientists	3 (8.3)	3 (8.3)	4 (11.1)	6 (16.7)	-	5 (13.9)	1 (2.8)	-	14 (38.9)	36 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	10 (32.3)	3 (9.7)	4 (12.9)	2 (6.5)	4 (12.9)	-	-	8 (25.8)	31 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (2.9)	2 (5.7)	4 (11.4)	5 (14.3)	2 (5.7)	4 (11.4)	-	-	17 (48.6)	35 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	5 (14.7)	2 (5.9)	7 (20.6)	1 (2.9)	6 (17.6)	-	1 (2.9)	12 (35.3)	34 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	5 (14.3)	3 (8.6)	2 (5.7)	3 (8.6)	-	-	-	22 (62.9)	35 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	1 (4.2)	3 (12.5)	3 (12.5)	1 (4.2)	-	3 (12.5)	-	-	13 (54.2)	24 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	2 (5.9)	3 (8.8)	2 (5.9)	-	4 (11.8)	-	-	23 (67.6)	34 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (5.3)	-	2 (10.5)	1 (5.3)	-	3 (15.8)	-	3 (15.8)	9 (47.4)	19 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	2 (6.5)	3 (9.7)	2 (6.5)	-	2 (6.5)	-	-	22 (71.0)	31 (100.0)
TOTAL	6 (2.2)	32 (11.5)	27 (9.7)	30 (10.8)	8 (2.9)	31 (11.1)	1 (0.4)	4 (1.4)	140 (50.2)	279 (100.0)

Note : (1) Figures include retired members and only those who are above the age of the respondent.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

segment, a significant number of degree college and university teachers, architects and engineers and auditors and accountants have followed the profession taken up by their parental family members. In the case of scientists we observed that a higher than average proportion came from families with scientists (8.3 per cent), the same holds good for degree college (11.1 per cent) and university teachers (16.7 per cent). In the case of lawyers we observed that there was not such a marked linkage between profession of respondent and family members - only 8.6 per cent of the family members were in the legal profession, the majority (62.9 per cent) were in administrative and managerial jobs.

III.3.5 Income Level : The average monthly household income of the respondents parental family was Rs.9,935 and the per capita income was Rs.2,196 (Table III.17). Thus we observe that respondents came from relatively better off families. Only 18.8 per cent of the respondents parental household members had a monthly income of less than Rs.5,000. We can, therefore, conclude that our data corroborates our hypothesis that a major proportion of women professional workers belong

Table III, 17 : Distribution of Parental Households According to Monthly Income

Category	Monthly Household Income in '000 Rs.								Average Monthly Household Income (Rs.)	Per Capita Income (in Rs.)	(Nos.)
	Below 5.0 - 7.5 - 10.0 - 12.5 - 15.0 & Above										
	Below 5.0	5.0 - 7.5	7.5 - 10.0	10.0 - 12.5	12.5 - 15.0	15.0 - 18.8	18.8 - 21.2	Above 21.2			
1. Scientists	1	-	4	5	3	7	20		13,235	2,570	
	(5.0)		(20.0)	(25.0)	(15.0)	(35.0)	(100.0)				
2. Doctors	2	5	2	4	2	5	20		11,018	2,720	
	(10.0)	(25.0)	(10.0)	(20.0)	(10.0)	(25.0)	(100.0)				
3. Degree College Teachers	3	4	3	1	5	4	20		11,028	2,228	
	(15.0)	(20.0)	(15.0)	(5.0)	(25.0)	(20.0)	(100.0)				
4. University Teachers	2	2	2	2	3	9	20		13,409	2,530	
	(10.0)	(10.0)	(10.0)	(10.0)	(15.0)	(45.0)	(100.0)				
5. Lawyers	8	7	3	2	-	-	20		5,782	1,192	
	(40.0)	(35.0)	(15.0)	(10.0)			(100.0)				
6. Architects and Engineers	7	6	4	2	-	1	20		7,240	2,011	
	(35.0)	(30.0)	(20.0)	(10.0)		(5.0)	(100.0)				
7. Social Scientists	4	8	6	1	1	-	20		7,174	1,729	
	(20.0)	(40.0)	(30.0)	(5.0)	(5.0)		(100.0)				
8. Architects, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1	2	3	1	1	2	10		10,765	2,446	
	(10.0)	(20.0)	(30.0)	(10.0)	(10.0)	(20.0)	(100.0)				
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4	2	5	2	3	4	20		10,178	2,423	
	(20.0)	(10.0)	(25.0)	(10.0)	(15.0)	(20.0)	(100.0)				
TOTAL	32	36	32	20	18	32	170		9,935	2,196	
	(18.8)	(21.2)	(18.8)	(11.8)	(10.6)	(18.8)	(100.0)				

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

to urban middle class families. The per capita income estimates show that doctors (Rs.2,720), Scientists (Rs.2,570) and university teachers (Rs.2,530), come from relatively richer families. They are followed by auditors and accountants (Rs.2,446) and administrative, executive and managerial workers (Rs.2,423). A striking feature is that family members of lawyers have a relatively much lower per capita income of only Rs.1,192, their average monthly household income is also much lower than the total average.

#### III.4 Conclusions

We may now sum up our findings about the social characteristics of the respondents and their household members. The analysis reveals that religion strongly determines the phenomena of women entering the workforce. In the present sample we observed a very small representation of Muslims in spite of the fact that Muslims form a considerable proportion of the total population. Hindus formed a major proportion of the sample. In the caste break-up an interesting fact emerges - only high caste Hindus are entering the professional cadres.



There is no representation of scheduled castes and tribes and backward castes thus highlighting the discriminatory social framework. Most of the respondents are Kayasths, Brahmins or Vaishyas as these castes have adapted to western education and are predominantly urban in their distribution.

The study also reveals that these professional workers came from highly educated families where a majority of members are graduates and above. The respondents themselves belong to the highly educated category of the population. A high proportion of the respondents were professionally trained, specially those belonging to the "newer" occupations like architects and engineers, auditors and accountants, lawyers and administrative and executive workers. Thus, revealing the fact that professional training is imperative for women entering male dominated occupations.

Thus the social profile of the average respondent is that she is a Hindu belonging to the Brahmin, Kayasth or Vaishya community, her household members have a high educational level, she herself is well educated and has received professional training.

The analysis brought to light the fact that the respondents belong to households where a majority of members are working. We observe a close link between the profession of the respondent and that of the family members. The theory of occupational consistency between spouses was substantiated in the present study, except in the case of degree college teachers and to some extent university teachers where there is a dissonance in occupation of respondent and her spouse.

The analysis of the parental background of the respondent revealed that the respondents came from small size families with a high level of education, thus showing an inverse relation between the size of family and educational level of household members. The study shows that these professional workers came from parental families where a majority of members are employed. An analysis into the employment status of female members of parental family revealed that a considerable number of them were employed. Though a small proportion of mothers were registered as employed, a significant proportion of elder sisters of the respondents were working. Thus the phenomena of females in occupation was established in the parental family. An interesting fact revealed



by the study was that most of the respondents came from families where a majority of the members were in government service. The analysis concludes that the respondents choice of profession is closely linked with that of her parental family's profession.

A study of the income levels of the respondents parental family highlights the fact that most respondents belong to the upper middle class strata of society. The hypothesis that a major proportion of women professional workers belong to the urban middle class families - has been corroborated by our study.

## NOTES

1. The number of women workers has increased from 1,73,254 in 1971 to 2,73,272 in 1981 showing a 57.15 per cent change in U.P. urban.
2. The reason for high representation of Hindus is that Hinduism has a capacity to adjust to changing conditions and thereby more Hindus are engaged in modern occupations and professions (Pandeya, 1970).
3. According to 1981 Census, Sikhs constitute 0.41 per cent of the population in U.P. and 1.36 per cent in Lucknow and Jains are 0.13 per cent and 0.17 per cent respectively. Buddhists from a mere 0.5 per cent and 0.2 per cent respectively and thus have no representation in this sample.
4. Major impetus was given to women's education only in the post-independence era and this came about due to the acceptance of equality of women and their need to play multiple roles in the society (National Commission on Women, 1974, pp.234-235).
5. A study by Parsons (1949) shows that besides consistency in professions of spouses, working wives also have the same educational level as their husbands.
6. 48.9 per cent of total households in U.P. and 43.6 per cent in Lucknow urban have six members and above in their households (Census of India, 1981).

## CHAPTER IV

Demographic CharacteristicsIV.0 Introduction

A comprehensive picture of the status of women workers can emerge only if details of demographic variables are studied. Demographic parameters like age, marital status, number of children, etc. also influence the size and composition of the labour force and play a crucial role in the decision of women to enter the workforce. The importance of demographic characteristics has been recognised by a large number of scholars in their studies dealing with the female labour force (Ranade and Ramachandran, 1970; Kapur, 1970; Andiappan, 1980; Singh, 1981; Papola, 1986 and Rammanna, 1987). A study of these variables will throw light upon the types of occupations that urban educated women prefer (Srivastava, 1978). They will also help in understanding the existence of discrimination and segregation in certain professions.

This chapter deals first with the age structure of the respondents and the household members. Then there is an analysis of the marital status of the respondents which throws light upon aspects like the age at marriage

and whether the respondents joined service before or after marriage. The third section of the chapter discusses the number of children and their distribution by age and sex and also the spacing between children. The final section deals with the size and structure of the family and includes residential characteristics of the respondent.

#### IV.1 Age

Table IV.1 shows the distribution of respondents by age-groups. The data reveals that 45.3 per cent of the respondents came from the age group of 25-35 years. This implies that the phenomenon of women entering the professional cadres is relatively recent. In western countries a bimodal age pattern of working women has been observed because women leave the work-force for child bearing and rearing and then re-enter at a later stage.<sup>1</sup> The present sample, however, reveals a unimodal age pattern. A high percentage of women in the age-group of 25-35 years and then a gradual decline. During the survey it was observed that professional women did not leave their career for child bearing and rearing. The



age-group 25-35 years has more than proportionate representation in professional groups than in Lucknow urban where 35 per cent of workers come from the age group of 25-35 years.<sup>2</sup>

Table IV.1 : Distribution of Respondents by Age Groups

Category						(Nos.)
	Below 25 Yrs.	25-35 Yrs.	35-45 Yrs.	45 & Above	Total	Average Age
1. Scientists	-	5 (25.0)	10 (50.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)	38.9
2. Doctors	-	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)	37.9
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	6 (30.0)	20 (100.0)	38.2
4. University Tea- chers	-	3 (15.0)	7 (35.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)	43.6
5. Lawyers	2 (10.0)	15 (75.0)	3 (15.0)	-	20 (100.0)	28.2
6. Architects and Engineers	7 (35.0)	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	26.9
7. Social Scientists	-	11 (55.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)	35.7
8. Auditors, Account- ants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	6 (60.0)	1 (10.0)	-	10 (100.0)	27.1
9. Administrative, Executive and Mana- gerial Workers	1 (5.0)	12 (60.0)	6 (30.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	32.7
<b>TOTAL</b>	16 (9.4)	77 (45.3)	48 (28.2)	29 (17.1)	170 (100.0)	34.8

Note : Figures in parentheses indicate percentages.



Among the various categories covered one observes that in the age group of below 25 years there is above average representation of architects and engineers (35 per cent) and auditors and accountants (30 per cent). In the age group 25-35 years there is a large proportion of lawyers, architects and engineers, social scientists, auditors and accountants and administrative and managerial workers. Scientists (50 per cent), doctors (40 per cent) and university teachers (35 per cent) predominate in the 35-45 years age group and degree college teachers and scientists are over-represented in the age group of '45 and above'. Thus we observe that in the category of doctors, scientists and university and degree college teachers, majority of the respondents are above 35 years due to the fact that these professions have been accessible for women for a considerably larger period compared to the others. Women's entrance in the other professions like lawyers, architects, engineers, auditors, accountants, administrative and managerial workers is a relatively recent phenomena and has been achieved by a gradual change in social attitudes. The average age in these categories is lower than the overall average age of 34.8 years.

Analysing the distribution of household members by age groups (Table IV.2) it is observed that three-fourths of the household members are in the age group of 15-60 years. Thus, we may conclude that these professional workers come from households where majority of the members are in the age group of economically active individuals. This holds good for all the respondents surveyed.

Table IV.2 : Distribution of Household Members According to Age-Groups

Category	(Nos.)			Total
	0 - 15	15 - 60	60 & Above	
1. Scientists	18 (20.5)	64 (72.7)	6 ( 6.8)	88 (100.0)
2. Doctors	17 (17.7)	69 (71.9)	10 (10.4)	96 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (10.3)	54 (79.4)	7 (10.3)	68 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	13 (15.3)	62 (72.9)	10 (11.8)	85 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	3 ( 2.9)	83 (80.6)	17 (16.5)	103 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	13 (15.1)	66 (76.7)	7 ( 8.1)	86 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	11 (14.3)	53 (68.8)	13 (16.9)	77 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants Mathematicians and Statisticians	4 (10.0)	28 (70.0)	8 (20.0)	40 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	20 (27.8)	47 (65.3)	5 ( 6.9)	72 (100.0)
<b>TOTAL</b>	106 (14.8)	526 (73.6)	83 (11.6)	715 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

IV.2 Marital Status

Studies in the west show that married women are more likely to enter the workforce.<sup>3</sup> The present study shows that 57.1 per cent of the respondents were married and 38.8 per cent were unmarried (Table IV.3). The marital status mostly reflects the age-structure. This can be observed in the case of lawyers (95 per cent)

Table IV.3 : Distribution of Respondents by Marital Status

Categories	(Nos.)					Total
	Un-married	Married	Widow	Divorced	Separated	
1. Scientists	2 (10.0)	17 (85.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	17 (85.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (35.0)	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	5 (25.0)	15 (75.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	19 (95.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	8 (40.0)	12 (60.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	9 (45.0)	10 (50.0)	-	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	7 (70.0)	1 (10.0)	-	2 (20.0)	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	7 (35.0)	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	66 (38.8)	97 (57.1)	4 (2.4)	2 (1.2)	1 (0.6)	170 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

and auditors and accountants (70 per cent) in whom there is a higher incidence of unmarried respondents, who belong to the age group of below 35 years, and are thus new entrants to the workforce. Only three cases of divorced or separated women were registered in the sample, thus implying that though society is accepting them as workers even in non-traditional fields, the practice of divorce and separation is still considered taboo. The Indian woman, however, emancipated, has an inherently strong instinct to sustain family life in contrast to the western women where high divorce rates indicate the contrary.

The mean age at marriage reflects the social status of the women. For U.P. the mean age at marriage is very low, though it has increased from 12.27 years in 1901 to 16.68 years in 1981.<sup>4</sup> Compared to these figures the present sample shows the mean age at marriage is as high as 25.3 years (Table IV.4). Other studies have also indicated that the average age at marriage for working women is much higher and this has been substantiated in the present study. Education is an important factor affecting age at marriage and another factor is that most of the respondents have undergone professional training

Table IV.4 : Distribution of Respondents by Age at Marriage

Categories	(Nos.)						Average Age at Marriage
	Below 21	21 - 24	24 - 27	27-- 30	30 & Above	Total	
1. Scientists	-	4 (22.2)	9 (50.0)	3 (16.7)	2 (11.1)	18 (100.0)	26.0
2. Doctors	1 ( 5.6)	7 (38.9)	6 (33.3)	3 (16.7)	1 ( 5.6)	18 (100.0)	24.8
3. Degree College Teachers	-	4 (30.8)	2 (15.3)	4 (30.8)	3 (23.1)	13 (100.0)	26.8
4. University Teachers	2 (13.3)	3 (20.0)	3 (20.0)	4 (26.7)	3 (20.0)	15 (100.0)	26.1
5. Lawyers	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	1 (100.0)	25.5
6. Architects and Engineers	-	4 ( 33.3)	5 ( 41.7)	3 (25.0)	-	12 (100.0)	25.3
7. Social Scientists	2 (18.2)	3 (27.3)	4 (36.4)	2 (18.2)	-	11 (100.0)	24.1
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathe- maticians and Statisticians	-	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	-	-	3 (100.0)	23.5
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	2 (15.4)	6 (46.2)	3 (23.1)	1 ( 7.7)	1 ( 7.7)	13 (100.0)	23.8
TOTAL	7 ( 6.7)	33 (31.7)	34 (32.7)	20 (19.2)	10 ( 9.6)	104 (100.0)	25.3

Note: (1) Total figures denote married women including widows, divorcees and separated women.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



which is time-consuming. Upto 90 per cent of the respondents were married by the age of 30 years. A significant proportion of respondents got married within the age group of 21-27 years. However, both degree college and university teachers have married at a later age (a significant proportion 23 per cent and 20 per cent beyond the age of 30 years) as compared to the other groups.

38.2 per cent of the respondents had joined service before marriage (Table IV.5). Analysing the gap between joining service and marriage we observe that though the highest proportion of respondents (14.1 per cent) had got married within a year of joining service, there was a significant proportion who married after 2-3 years of service (10.6 per cent) and after 4-5 years of service (8.2 per cent). It was observed that a large proportion of scientists got married after 4-5 years of service (30 per cent) and a significant proportion of them along with degree college teachers were married after more than 5 years of service (10 per cent and 15 per cent respectively). A significant proportion of social scientists (25 per cent) got married within a year of joining service followed by scientists, university teachers and administrative, executive and managerial workers.

Table IV.5 : Distribution of Respondents Joining Service Before Marriage

Category	(Nos.)				Total
	Gap Between Service and Marriage (in Years)				
	Upto 1	2-3	4-5	Above 5	
1. Scientists	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	15 ( 75.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	4 (20.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	9 (45.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	10 (50.0)
5. Lawyers	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	-	1 ( 5.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	11 (55.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	8 (40.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	-	-	-	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	24 (14.1)	18 (10.6)	14 ( 8.2)	9 ( 5.3)	65 (38.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses are percentages to the total respondents in that category.

70 per cent of doctors, 30 per cent of auditors and accountants and executive and managerial workers started work within a year of marriage (Table IV.6). The gap between marriage and service for a large proportion of

Table IV.6 : Distribution of Respondents Joining Service After Marriage

Category	Gap Between Marriage and Service (in Years)				(Nos.)
	Upto 1	2-3	4-5	Above 5	Total
1. Scientists	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)
2. Doctors	1 ( 5.0)	6 (30.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	14 (70.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)
4. University Teachers	-	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	-	1 ( 5.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	-	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	-	1 (10.0)	-	3 (30.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (15.0)	-	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	6 (30.0)
TOTAL	8 ( 4.7)	10 ( 5.9)	11 ( 6.5)	10 ( 5.9)	39 (23.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses are percentages to the total respondents in that category.

doctors was 2-5 years (60 per cent). Amongst those who joined service after marriage the highest proportion (6.5 per cent) took to service after 4-5 years of marriage (specially doctors). A fair percentage of degree college teachers, scientists and social scientists took up a job after more than five years of marriage. 10 per cent of degree college teachers entered the workforce after 2-3 years of marriage.

#### IV.3 Children

Table IV.7 shows the distribution of married respondents by number of children. 46.2 per cent of the respondents had two children and 32.7 per cent had only one child. A fair percentage of respondents had no children (13.5 per cent). A striking observation is that none of the respondents had more than three children. These findings corroborate with a study of middle class educated women (Jain, 1988) where it was observed that a great majority of respondents had not more than two children.<sup>5</sup> The findings of the survey reinforce the view that a high educational level coupled with participation in economic activity and the number of children had a

Table IV.7 : Distribution of Married Respondents  
by Number of Children

Category	Number of Children				(Nos.)
	None	1	2	3	Total
1. Scientists	2 (11.1)	6 (33.3)	9 (50.0)	1 ( 5.5)	18 (100.0)
2. Doctors	1 ( 5.6)	4 (22.2)	13 (72.2)	-	18 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (23.1)	3 (23.1)	5 (38.5)	2 (15.4)	13 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 ( 6.7)	6 (40.0)	6 (40.0)	2 (13.3)	15 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (33.3)	5 (41.7)	3 (25.0)	-	12 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 9.1)	4 (36.4)	5 (45.5)	1 ( 9.1)	11 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	-	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	5 (38.5)	7 (53.8)	1 ( 7.7)	13 (100.0)
TOTAL	14 (13.5)	34 (32.7)	48 (46.2)	8 ( 7.7)	104 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



direct correlation. It is evident that professional women workers do not want larger families. This conclusion is reflected in Table IV.8 where the average number of children per married respondent is calculated to be 1.5.

Doctors, university teachers and administrative executive and managerial workers had a slightly higher average and auditors and accountants had a slightly lower average of children. The average number of children for architects

Table IV.8 : Average Number of Children Per Married Respondent According to Age-Group

Category	25-35	35-45	45 & Above	Total Average No. of Children per Married Respondent	Age Parity Index
1. Scientists	0.7	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5
2. Doctors	1.3	2.0	1.5	1.7	1.6
3. Degree College Teachers	-	1.2	2.2	1.5	1.2
4. University Teachers	1.0	2.5	1.0	1.6	1.5
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	0.3	2.0	-	0.9	0.9
7. Social Scientists	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1.3	-	-	1.3	1.1
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1.4	2.0	-	1.7	1.5
TOTAL	1.1	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.4

Note : Respondents below 25 years have no children.

and engineers was considerably low 0.9, the reason being that they belong to a younger age group. It is observed from the table that comparatively older women (above 35 years) had more children - the average was 1.9 for the age group of 35-45 years and 1.5 for 45 years and above and only 1.1 for 25-35 years.

To adjust for the differences in the average age of different groups we have also calculated the age parity index of children by using a weighted average figure of number of children taking the proportion of respondents in different age-groups. However, this does not alter our main findings about number of children in different categories.

An interesting fact that emerges while analysing the sex of the children of the respondents (Table IV.9) is that 54.5 per cent of the children were males and 45.5 per cent were females. This fact goes along with the male - female ratio in India which is unfavourable for females (934 females per thousand males in 1981).<sup>6</sup> In the present study the sex ratio is worked out at 833 females per thousand males, this figure is in consonance with that of Lucknow urban, i.e. 834 in 1981 but was slightly lower than the sex ratio of U.P. urban which

Table IV.9 : Distribution of Children in Respondent's Households by Sex

(Nos.)

Category	Male	Female	Total	Average No. of Children Per Household
1. Scientists	16 (59.3)	11 (40.7)	27 (100.0)	1.4
2. Doctors	18 (60.0)	12 (40.0)	30 (100.0)	1.5
3. Degree College Teachers	11 (57.9)	8 (42.1)	19 (100.0)	1.0
4. University Teachers	8 (33.3)	16 (66.7)	24 (100.0)	1.2
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	6 (54.5)	5 (45.5)	11 (100.0)	0.6
7. Social Scientists	8 (47.1)	9 (53.0)	17 (100.0)	0.9
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (75.0)	1 (25.0)	4 (100.0)	0.4
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	14 (63.6)	8 (36.4)	22 (100.0)	1.1
TOTAL	84 (54.5)	70 (45.5)	154 (100.0)	0.9

Note : (1) Children includes all sons and daughters irrespective of age.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

was 846 in 1981. The reason for this unfavourable sex ratio is that expectation of life at birth is lower for females than males and also mortality rate of females is higher than that of males. It was observed that in all the categories the number of male children was higher than that of female children. Only in the case of university teachers the situation is reversed as 66.7 per cent of children are females and 33.3 per cent are males.

To gauge the existence of any attitudinal bias regarding sex of children we looked into the number of respondents with <sup>male only</sup> only/or/female children. From Table IV.10 we observe that 35.6 per cent of respondents had only male children and 28.9 per cent had only female children. Thus our data does not show a strong preference among the respondents for a male child over a female child. A relatively higher than average proportion of administrative and executive workers (53.9 per cent), auditors and accountants (50 per cent) and doctors (41.2 per cent) had only male children, whereas a high proportion of university teachers (42.9 per cent) had only female children. 35.6 per cent of the respondents had both male and female children. Thus we may conclude that in general, the respondents are not influenced by traditional preference for male children as they tend to limit the family size after first or second child whatever their sex.

Table IV.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to  
Their Having only Male or Female Children  
(Nos.)

Category	Only Male Children	Only Fe- male Children	Both Male & Female Children	Total
1. Scientists	5 (31.3)	4 (25.0)	7 (43.8)	16 (100.0)
2. Doctors	7 (41.2)	6 (35.3)	4 (23.5)	17 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (40.0)	1 (10.0)	5 (50.0)	10 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (14.3)	6 (42.9)	6 (42.9)	14 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	3 (37.5)	3 (37.5)	2 (25.0)	8 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	4 (40.0)	10 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (50.0)	-	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	7 (53.8)	3 (23.1)	3 (23.1)	13 (100.0)
TOTAL	32 (35.6)	26 (28.9)	32 (35.6)	90 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



It has been observed that the degree to which married women can enter the workforce depends on her family situation, thus there is a low participation rate among mothers of young children (Murray, 1963). There are, however, conflicting findings on family situation, number of children and women's participation in employment. Srivastava's (1978) study shows that women's entrance into the workforce is not sufficiently conditioned by the presence or absence of young children in the family. One reason for these contrary results is that the socioeconomic status of women in the west and east differ widely. Our study corroborates with Srivastava's study with 32.7 per cent of children being below five, 43.9 per cent between 5-10 years and 23.5 per cent being between 10-15 years (Table IV.11). Scientists (average age 38.9 years), doctors (average age 37.9 years), architects and engineers (average age 26.9 years) and social scientists (average age 35.7 years) had a large proportion of children below 5 years. Whereas degree college and university teachers (average age 38.2 years and 43.6 years respectively), auditors and accountants (average age 27.1 years) and administrative, executive and managerial workers (average age 32.7 years) had a larger percentage of children above five years. A considerable proportion of

Table IV.11 : Distribution of Children in Respondents Household According to Age Groups (in Years)

Category	Below 5	5 - 10	10 - 15	Total
1. Scientists	7 (38.9)	6 (33.3)	5 (27.8)	18 (100.0)
2. Doctors	8 (47.1)	6 (35.3)	3 (17.6)	17 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (16.7)	2 (33.3)	3 (50.0)	6 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 (9.1)	6 (54.5)	4 (36.4)	11 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	5 (45.5)	4 (36.4)	2 (18.2)	11 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	5 (45.5)	4 (36.4)	2 (18.2)	11 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (25.0)	3 (75.0)	-	4 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	12 (60.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	32 (32.7)	43 (43.9)	23 (23.5)	98 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

respondents have pre-school going children, thus establishing the fact that professional women workers are not deterred from entering the labour force nor forced to withdraw from it on account of having very small children, because they can depend on hired help or relatives to look after the children.

It has been clearly established that as educational level increases, the attitude towards family planning becomes more favourable (ORG Report, Ministry of Health, 1972). Proper spacing of children is an integral part of family planning. It has been medically proved that a gap of at least 2-3 years between children is favourable both for the mother and the child. From Table IV.12 we observe that majority of the respondents had their first child within the first two years of marriage. The reason being that as the average age at marriage is comparatively high, the respondents prefer to start family life immediately. Proper spacing has been maintained between first and second child, a gap of 2-3 years or more was observed by 84 per cent of the respondents. A total of eight respondents went in for a third child and 50 per cent of the respondents maintained a gap of more than three years between the second and third child. In the case of

Table IV.12 : Distribution of Respondents According to Time-Gap Between Children

Category	Between Marriage and First Child				
	1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	More than three Yrs	Total
0	1	2	3	4	5
1. Scientists	5 (31.3)	3 (18.8)	6 (37.5)	2 (12.5)	16 (100.0)
2. Doctors	7 (41.2)	7 (41.2)	1 ( 5.9)	2 (11.8)	17 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)	4 (40.0)	10 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (28.6)	5 (35.7)	2 (14.3)	3 (21.4)	14 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (50.0)	3 (37.5)	1 (12.5)	-	8 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	4 (40.0)	2 (20.0)	1 (10.0)	3 (30.0)	10 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	-	2 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (30.8)	4 (30.8)	4 (30.8)	1 ( 7.7)	13 (100.0)
TOTAL	31 (34.4)	26 (28.9)	18 (20.0)	15 (16.7)	90 (100.0)

Contd...

Contd. Table IV.12

Category	Between First and Second Child				
	1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	More than 3 Years	Total
0	6	7	8	9	10
1	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	-	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)
2	2 (15.4)	6 (46.2)	1 ( 7.7)	4 (30.8)	13 (100.0)
3	-	4 (57.2)	1 (14.3)	2 (28.6)	7 (100.0)
4	1 (11.1)	3 (33.3)	3 (33.3)	2 (22.2)	9 (100.0)
5	-	-	-	-	-
6	-	-	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)
7	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	-	-	6 (100.0)
8	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)
9	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	4 (50.0)	2 (25.0)	8 (100.0)
<b>TOTAL</b>	9 (15.8)	18 (31.6)	11 (19.3)	19 (33.3)	57 (100.0)

Contd...



Contd. Table IV.12

Category	Between Second and Third Child				
	1 Year	2 Years	3 Years	More than 3 Years	Total
0	11	12	13	14	15
1	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)
2	-	-	-	-	-
3	-	-	-	2 (100.0)	2 (100.0)
4	-	-	-	2 (100.0)	2 (100.0)
5	-	-	-	-	-
6	-	-	-	-	-
7	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)
8	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)
9	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	1 (100.0)
TOTAL	2 (25.0)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	4 (50.0)	8 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

scientists and degree college teachers our study observed that a significant proportion (50 per cent and 60 per cent respectively) maintained a gap of three years or more even in the case of the first child. Except for these two, the other categories have maintained an approximately similar time gap between children.

#### IV.4 Size and Structure of Family

The present sample shows an average family size of 4.2 members per household (Table IV.13). Four member households are only 14.1 per cent of total households in Lucknow urban (Census of India, 1981). Our study shows that 36.3 per cent of the households have 1-3 members and 54.7 per cent of households have 4-6 members. Doctors and lawyers have a comparatively large size of family whereas, degree college teachers, administrative, executive and managerial workers and social scientists have a comparatively smaller family. Only 3 respondents had more than 10 members in their family.

A major reason for the small size of households is that 93 per cent of the respondents belong to nuclear families (Table IV.14). In this study a joint family is

Table IV.13: Distribution of Respondents According to Size of Household

Category	Size of Household				Total	(Nos.) Average Size of Household
	1 - 3	4 - 6	7 - 9	9 & Above		
1. Scientists	5 (25.0)	13 (65.0)	2 (10.0)	-	20 (100.0)	4.4
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	16 (80.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.8
3. Degree College Teachers	13 (65.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	3.4
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4.3
5. Lawyers	5 (25.0)	11 (55.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	5.2
6. Architects and Engineers	6 (30.0)	13 (65.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	4.3
7. Social Scientists	10 (50.0)	9 (45.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	3.9
8. Auditors, Accoun- tants, Mathema- ticians and Statisticians	4 (40.0)	5 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	-	10 (100.0)	4.0
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	9 (45.0)	11 (55.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)	3.6
TOTAL	62 (36.3)	93 (54.7)	12 ( 7.1)	3 ( 1.8)	170 (100.0)	4.2

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Table IV.14 : Distribution of Respondents According to Family Structure

Category	(Nos.)		
	Nuclear Family	Joint Family	Total
1. Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	10 (100.0)	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	159 (93.5)	11 ( 6.5)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

defined as - two couples or more sharing a common kitchen and there is joint ownership of the property. In India there is a definite break away from the widely prevalent joint family system to the nuclear family because of industrialisation and urbanisation. The present study observes that the pure joint family system is more or less extinct (only 6.5 per cent). The largest representation of this system is seen in the case of doctors. As more women enter the labour force they have an independent economic status which influences their status within the family and makes the decision to break away, from a joint family, much easier (Ross, 1961). A nuclear family set-up is a better fit to the urban lifestyle and with increased economic pressure, income of a single spouse is not sufficient.

Table IV.15 shows the distribution of respondents according to residential characteristics. The table highlights that all married respondents are staying with their husbands, except for one case in which the husband has been recently transferred to another city. A majority of the unmarried women are residing with their parents. During the interview the parents expressed hesitation in sending their daughters outside the city, thus unmarried women preferred to seek employment in the



Table IV.15 : Distribution of Respondents According to Residential Characteristics

Category	(Nos.)				Total
	Living Singly	Living with Parents	Living with Husband	Living with Relative	
1. Scientists	-	3 (15.0)	17 (85.0)	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	2 (10.0)	17 (85.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	15 (75.0)	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	1 (5.0)	18 (90.0)	1 (5.0)	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	12 (60.0)	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 (5.0)	10 (50.0)	9 (45.0)	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	6 (60.0)	1 (10.0)	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	12 (60.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	15 (8.8)	57 (33.5)	96 (56.5)	2 (1.2)	170 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

city. Our study focusses on the fact that there is a low mobility among women in these professions even though most of the professions included in the sample are 'non-traditional' for women. Only 8.8 per cent of the respondents resided singly. The largest proportion of these were among degree college teachers, executive and managerial workers and auditors and accountants. Two of the degree college teachers were living in a hostel run by the college where they were teaching and one was a widow. In the administrative and managerial cadres one respondent was an elderly unmarried lady, the other was a widow and the third was an I.A.S. officer who was posted in Lucknow. Two of the auditors and accountants were young unmarried women and had taken up a paying guest accommodation by the bank. A similar pattern was observed in the respondents in the rest of the categories. They were widows, young unmarried girls living either as paying guests or had been provided accommodation by their employers and lastly unmarried elderly women.

51.8 per cent of the respondents had their parents or parents-in-law residing with them (Table IV.16). The 35.3 per cent of respondents with parents staying with them were mostly unmarried respondents. Therefore, there

Table IV.16 : Distribution of Respondents Staying  
with Parents/Parents-in-Law

Category	(Nos.)		
	Parents	Parents-in-Law	Total
1. Scientists	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	8 (40.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	9 (45.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)
4. University Teachers	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)
5. Lawyers	18 (90.0)	-	18 (90.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	13 (65.0)
7. Social Scientists	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)	11 (55.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	7 (70.0)	1 (10.0)	8 (80.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	60 (35.3)	28 (16.5)	88 (51.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

was a large representation of these respondents in the case of lawyers and auditors and accountants as most of the respondents in these categories were unmarried. A majority of the parents and in-laws were elderly retired people. Also both parents and parents-in-law helped the respondent in looking after their children and thus enabling the respondents to enter the workforce despite having young children.

#### IV.5 Conclusions

We may now sum up the demographic characteristics of the professional women workers as revealed by our study. Firstly, women's entry into the professional cadres is a relatively new phenomenon as a bulk of respondents are from the younger age group - the average age being 34.8 years. This is particularly true in the case of lawyers, architects, engineers, auditors, accountants, administrative, executive and managerial workers. Also three-fourths of the household members of the respondents are from the economically active group.

Analysis of the marital status of the respondents shows that more than 50 per cent of the respondents were

married. The number of divorcees and separated women is negligible emphasising the fact that these practices are still considered taboo in Indian society. The study highlights the fact that the average age of marriage for these professional workers is relatively high (25.3 years). A large percentage of these workers have entered into matrimony after completing their professional courses and joining service. A major proportion of doctors, however, joined service after marriage.

The number of children per married respondent is only 1.5, bringing to light the fact that these professional workers consciously limit the size of their families. The conclusion being that a high educational level coupled with participation in economic activity and the number of children have a direct correlation. An important fact revealed by the survey was that none of the respondents had more than three children. The present survey shows that the sex ratio of children is unfavourable to female children (833 females per thousand males). However, there was no attitudinal bias against female children as there was only a small difference in the proportion of respondents with only male or only female children. A fair proportion of respondents had pre-school going children. Respondents



in the age-group of 35-45 years had the maximum number of children. It was observed that respondents had spaced their children properly. Though a majority had their first child within a year of marriage, the gap between the rest of the children was two years or more in almost all cases.

The size of family of the respondent was 4.2. 93.5 per cent of the respondents had nuclear families. Thus women's entry into the workforce has catalysed the formation of nuclear families which is better suited to the urban life-style than joint families. The study also revealed that a majority of the respondents stayed with their husbands - if married-or with their parents - if unmarried. An almost negligible proportion of women workers resided singly. An interesting fact revealed by the survey was that 51.8 per cent of the respondents had parents or parents-in-law residing with them. Thus stressing the fact that in India the family structure is still very strong. Besides parents-in-law also helped the respondent in child rearing, thus enabling her to continue her career.

To sum up the general demographic profile of the respondents we may say that she is relatively young, is

married, has a high age at marriage, has entered matrimony after joining service, has limited and spaced her children properly, has a small size of household, has a nuclear family and resides with her husband.

## NOTES

1. There is a high percentage of women workers in the age groups of 17-24 years, a gradual decline upto 32 years and then an increase in the age of 45 (Bancroft, 1958).
2. In Lucknow urban 20 per cent of female workers are in the age group of below 25; 35 per cent in the age group of 25-35 years; 33 per cent in 35-45 years and 10 per cent in 45 years and above (Census of India, Series 22, U.P., 1981).
3. A contrary picture emerges in Ireland, where 64 per cent of working women are single and only 31 per cent are married (Murdoch, 1984).
4. For a detailed analysis of mean age at marriage for males and females in U.P. see Srivastava (1987).
5. The study mentioned covers working and non-working women in Agra, Kanpur, Lucknow and Varanasi. In the sample taken only 10.5 per cent respondents had more than three children (Jain, 1988).
6. It is expected to be 938 females per thousand males in 1986 (National Commission on Status of Women in India, 1974).

## CHAPTER V

Level of Earnings and Economic StatusV.0 Introduction

The economic status of women within the household is a good indicator of her status in society. The income level of women workers is an important variable determining the extent to which they have 'control' in household decisions. In the Indian household, the male is usually the bread-earner, and the female, if earning, merely supplements the family income. The National Commission on Status of Women in India (1974) observed that only 25.7 per cent of the respondents covered in their survey reported getting a monthly salary. In such a situation the female is automatically perceived as 'secondary', thus perpetuating a male-dominated society. This fairly dismal image of women is considerably improved as one observes women in the professional cadres. At this level male-female earnings are almost at par and the female worker is a financially independent entity.<sup>1</sup> It would thus be interesting to observe the level of earnings of women professional workers and consequently their economic status within the household.

One of the major objectives of our study is to estimate the level of earnings of educated professional workers and thus get an insight into their economic status and also thereby measuring their economic contribution to the household. Keeping this objective in view in this Chapter we propose to discuss the economic status and level of earnings of the respondents. We will also ascertain their contribution towards household expenditure. The Chapter is divided into four sections. The first section deals with asset ownership of the respondent's households. The second section looks into the household income level and throws light upon the respondents contribution to household income. The third section takes account of the total household expenditure on various items and also the contribution of the respondent in household expenditure. The fourth section deals with the level of net savings of the respondents' households. Lastly we summarise the conclusions drawn from the above sections.

#### V.1 Asset Ownership

Table V.1 shows the average values of durable goods and assets per respondent household. We observe that



Table V.1 : Average Values of Durable Goods and Assets Per Respondent Household

Category	(in Rs.)						
	House	Land	Orna- ments	Car	Scooter/ To Wheeler	Durable Goods	Total
1. Scientists	72,900 (28.2)	17,000 ( 6.6)	71,250 (27.6)	34,150 (13.2)	7,500 (2.9)	55,570 (21.5)	258,370 (100.0)
2. Doctors	225,000 (42.2)	26,500 ( 5.0)	135,750 (25.5)	85,600 (16.1)	10,650 ( 2.0)	49,550 ( 9.3)	533,050 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	125,250 (41.0)	60,000 (19.6)	47,900 (15.7)	16,850 ( 5.5)	9,420 ( 3.1)	46,106 (15.1)	305,526 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	92,250 (25.0)	70,750 (19.2)	67,250 (18.2)	81,500 (22.1)	7,050 ( 1.9)	50,570 (13.8)	367,370 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	48,750 (21.6)	52,500 (23.2)	63,100 (27.9)	15,000 ( 6.6)	10,450 ( 4.6)	36,050 (14.1)	255,850 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	85,000 (38.1)	13,000 ( 5.8)	60,750 (27.2)	16,000 ( 7.2)	12,625 ( 5.7)	35,700 (15.3)	233,075 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	87,600 (37.0)	44,000 (18.6)	58,250 (24.6)	5,000 ( 2.1)	10,375 ( 4.4)	31,330 (13.2)	236,555 (100.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	50,000 (24.8)	25,000 (12.4)	54,000 (26.8)	20,000 ( 9.9)	10,400 ( 5.2)	42,200 (20.9)	201,600 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	75,000 (24.0)	66,000 (21.1)	66,000 (21.1)	51,000 (16.3)	8,550 ( 2.7)	45,535 (14.6)	312,085 (100.0)
TOTAL	98,441 (32.6)	42,618 (14.1)	70,265 (23.3)	37,071 (12.3)	9,626 ( 3.2)	43,707 (14.5)	301,727 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

the average value of goods and assets is a little over Rs.3 lakhs. During our survey we observed some hesitation by the respondents while giving the actual values of assets. Therefore, some under-valuation of assets is not ruled out as there is a tendency not to disclose their full value. Doctors are the richest having an average value of Rs.5 lakhs of assets. They are followed by university teachers, administrative executive and managerial workers and degree college teachers. All possessing about Rs.3 lakhs of assets on an average. The least affluent in terms of asset ownership are auditors and accountants (Rs.2 lakhs). One reason for this is that they belong to a relatively younger age-group than the rest of the categories mentioned above as pointed out in Chapter IV.

House was the most important asset accounting for one-third of the total value of assets. It was followed by ornaments (23.3 per cent), vehicles (15.5 per cent), durable goods (14.5 per cent) and land (14.1 per cent). Investment made by doctors (42.2 per cent) and degree college teachers (41 per cent) in a house is considerably larger than that made by the other groups. Doctors (5.0 per cent) and architects and engineers (5.8 per cent)

made a very low level of investment in land in terms of total value of assets. For social scientists, degree college teachers and lawyers investment in a car formed a very small proportion of their total asset value. The proportion of investment in durable goods to total value of assets was fairly high in scientists and auditors and accountants compared to the other categories while doctors investment in the same formed a very low proportion of their total asset value.

As shown in Table V.2, 45.3 per cent of the respondents owned a house, while 26.5 per cent reported possession of land. Barring a few, all respondents did possess a refrigerator and television set. A major proportion possessed a scooter or other two wheeler (68.8 per cent) and a fair proportion owned a car (37.1 per cent). Almost one-fourth of the respondents possessed a video which is a luxury item. An interesting item covered was washing machine, which 14 per cent of the respondents owned. This reveals that educated professional workers are relying increasingly on mechanical appliances for domestic work as they have limited time for domestic work and domestic help in urban areas is fast becoming scarce and consequently very expensive.

**Table V.2 : Distribution of Households Reporting Possession of Durable Goods and Assets**

(Nos.)

Category	House	Land	Car	Scooter/ Two Wheeler	Refrigerator	Television	VCR/ VCP	Washing Machine
1. Scientists	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	10 (50.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)	19 (95.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)
2. Doctors	14 (70.0)	4 (20.0)	17 (85.0)	14 (70.0)	20 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	9 (45.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	14 (70.0)	19 (95.0)	19 (95.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	9 (45.0)	9 (45.0)	20 (100.0)	18 (90.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)
5. Lawyers	10 (50.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	15 (75.0)	16 (80.0)	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	18 (90.0)	19 (95.0)	19 (95.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)
7. Social Scientists	11 (55.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	13 (65.0)	19 (95.0)	19 (95.0)	4 (20.0)	1 (5.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)	2 (20.0)	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)	9 (90.0)	1 (10.0)	3 (30.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	6 (30.0)	11 (55.0)	12 (60.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)
<b>TOTAL</b>	77 (45.3)	45 (26.5)	63 (37.1)	117 (68.8)	163 (95.9)	161 (94.7)	42 (24.7)	24 (14.1)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

A large proportion of doctors (70 per cent) and a significant proportion of social scientists (55 per cent) owned a house. Only one auditor and accountant had a house and a fairly low percentage (30) of administrative and executive workers had a house. A higher than average proportion of administrative, executive and managerial workers (55 per cent), university teachers (40 per cent) and lawyers (35 per cent) reported possession of land, whereas, only 10 per cent of scientists and architects and engineers owned land. A major number of doctors (85 per cent) and a considerable number of administrative and executive workers (60 per cent), scientists (50 per cent) and university teachers (45 per cent) had a car. On the other hand only one social scientist, two auditors and accountants, three lawyers and four degree college teachers had a car. Except for university teachers (45 per cent), more than 60 per cent of all other respondents possessed a scooter or any other two wheeler. The largest number of doctors and administrative and executive workers (both 40 per cent) owned a video, and merely 10 per cent of auditors and accountants and lawyers had a video. As has been observed earlier a fair proportion of respondents have bought a washing machine - the largest number being auditors and

accountants (30 per cent) followed by doctors (25 per cent). No lawyer possessed a washing machine. From the above analysis we conclude that, in our sample, doctors are the most affluent and auditors and accountants the least affluent in terms of asset ownership. On the whole we find that these educated professional workers belong to fairly affluent households in terms of asset ownership.

## V.2 Level of Earnings

### V.2.1 Household Income

V.2.1.1 Monthly Household Income : The average monthly household income of the respondents ranged from Rs.6,712 for lawyers to Rs.13,795 in the case of doctors.<sup>2</sup> Scientists, administrative, executive and managerial workers and university teachers have a monthly household income of approximately Rs.9,600 on an average. Architects and engineers and degree college teachers and an approximate average household income of Rs.8,400. Lawyers and social scientists belonged to the least affluent households in terms of family income - an average of Rs.6,900. Doctors and auditors and accountants (Rs.10,385) have the highest average monthly household income. One reason for the relatively high household earnings for



doctors is the fact that of all the categories, doctors had the highest proportion of household members in business (refer to Chapter III).

Table V.3 : Average Monthly Household Per Capita Income

(in Rs.)

Category	Total Household Income	Per Capita Income
1. Scientists	9,628	2,188
2. Doctors	13,795	2,874
3. Degree College Teachers	8,070	2,373
4. University Teachers	9,601	2,259
5. Lawyers	6,712	1,303
6. Architects and Engineers	8,755	2,036
7. Social Scientists	7,280	1,891
8. Auditors and Accountants, etc.	10,385	2,596
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	9,612	2,670
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>9,252</b>	<b>2,200</b>

V.2.1.2 Monthly Household Per Capita Income : The monthly household per capita income calculated for the total sample was Rs.2,200. All the categories can be broadly grouped into three sections. The first section includes doctors with a substantially high per capita income of Rs.2,874, followed by administrative, executive and managerial workers (Rs.2,670) and auditors and

accountants (Rs.2,596). The second section is the middle income group which has scientists, architects and engineers, university teachers and degree college teachers. The per capita income for this group ranges from Rs.2,188 for scientists upto Rs.2,373 as in the case of degree college teachers. The third section takes account of the least affluent categories of social scientists (Rs.1,891) and lawyers (Rs.1,303).

V.2.2 Monthly Income Level of Respondent : The monthly income level of a female worker is indicative of her economic status and the extent of her economic independence. The average monthly income of the respondent in our sample is Rs.3,564 (Table V.4). The income reported from this sample is much higher than the average income of educated employed women in other professions. Singh's (1981) study on nurses in Lucknow city reports an average income of only Rs.384. A study on urban women workers of Jodhpur city (Talwar, 1984) observed that the average monthly income was Rs.150. Shantha Mohan's (1989) study on educated employed women in Bangalore city observed an average monthly income of Rs.562/- for the year 1978. Thus professional women workers get a

Table V.4 : Average Monthly Income of Respondents  
by Sources

(in Rs.)				
Category	Service	Profession	Interests/ Dividends	Total
1. Scientists	4,049 (93.7)	-	270 (6.3)	4,319 (100.0)
2. Doctors	2,075 (32.3)	4,200 (65.4)	145 (2.3)	6,420 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3,030 (92.8)	-	235 (7.2)	3,265 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	4,031 (97.5)	-	105 (2.5)	4,136 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	1,070 (92.2)	90 (7.8)	1,160 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2,520 (92.6)	-	200 (7.4)	2,720 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	2,176 (86.1)	100 (4.0)	250 (9.9)	2,526 (100.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	2,435 (69.7)	800 (22.9)	260 (7.4)	3,495 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3,467 (96.6)	245 (6.1)	290 (7.2)	4,002 (100.0)
TOTAL	2,655 (74.5)	707 (19.8)	202 (5.7)	3,564 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

much higher income than urban women workers in other occupations. This phenomenon has been perceived in western countries also. Seidman (1978) observes in a study of women in employment in New England U.S.A. that 'nationally professional workers are relatively better paid, than are women workers in general'.

In our sample, we observed, that here again doctors had the highest average monthly income of Rs.6,420. Scientists, university teachers and administrative, executive and managerial workers had a higher than average monthly income. Lawyers had a relatively very low level of earnings. This can be explained by the fact that they belong to a younger age-group. Besides, almost all of them had started practising law only recently and it takes considerable time to establish oneself in private practice in this profession. Another factor accounting for their low income is that litigants are hesitant to come to female lawyers as some respondents mentioned during the interview.

The table also throws light upon the sources of income of the respondent. The major source of income of the respondents is through service (74.5 per cent). This

observation is in consonance with our hypothesis that 'urban educated women prefer salaried jobs'. 19.5 per cent of total income comes from profession and the share of interests and dividends is fairly small at 5.7 per cent. Service accounts for a major chunk of the monthly income in almost all categories except doctors, lawyers and to some extent auditors and accountants, as some respondents in these categories have entered into private practice. This is particularly true for practising lawyers (92.2 per cent) and doctors (65.4 per cent). Close to one-fourth of auditors and accountants have entered into private consultancy along with a very small proportion of administrative and executive workers and social scientists. The share of interests and dividends in total income was largest in the case of social scientists (9.9 per cent) and smallest in the case of doctors (2.3 per cent).

We had hypothesised that level of earnings and educational qualifications of women professional workers is positively correlated. Table V.5 corroborates our hypothesis as we observe that respondents with higher

Table V.5 : Average Monthly Level of Earnings and Educational Qualifications and Average Age of Respondents

Degrees	Graduate	Post-Graduate	Docto- rate	Total
1. Science	-	3,765 (34.0)	4,198 (39.6)	4,149 (38.9)
2. Arts/Commerce	2,824 (29.0)	3,192 (36.4)	3,713 (40.5)	3,277 (36.7)
3. <u>Professional Courses</u>				
(a) Medical	4,271 (37.7)	7,750 (37.0)	5,500 (50.0)	6,420 (37.9)
(b) Architecture	2,442 (26.5)	-	-	2,442 (26.5)
(c) Engineering	3,127 (27.7)	3,200 (27.0)	-	3,136 (27.6)
(d) Law	1,109 (28.7)	1,222 (27.4)	-	1,160 (28.2)
(e) Business Adminis- tration	-	3,913 (29.6)	-	3,913 (29.6)
OVERALL TOTAL	2,564 (28.5)	3,762 (34.5)	4,071 (40.1)	3,564 (34.8)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote average age in years of respondents in that category.

academic qualifications have a higher average monthly income in almost all cases. One exception is in the case of doctors, where, post-graduates earn more (Rs.7,750)



than doctorates (Rs.5,500), the reason being that all the doctorates registered were in teaching and research and thus were salaried workers whereas a few of the post-graduates were doing private practice and consequently earned more. We also observed that respondents with a science background earned more (Rs.4,149) than those with an arts/commerce background (Rs.3,277). In the professional courses doctors had the highest average income of Rs.6,420. They were followed by respondents who had done business administration (Rs.3,913) engineering (Rs.3,136) and architecture (Rs.2,442). Lawyers were the lowest paid as has been observed in the earlier table (Rs.1,160).

A high level of earnings may not only be due to higher education but also due to the age differences of the respondents in different groups. In the case of respondents with science and arts background this correlation between age, higher qualifications and higher earnings is clearly visible (Table V.5). This is also distinct in the case of graduates, post-graduates and doctorates. Turning to professional courses we observe that among doctors though the total earnings and average

age are positively correlated, the earnings of post-graduates are distinctly higher as compared to graduates, although the average age is nearly the same. In the case of respondents with engineering and law degrees the post-graduates again have a higher earning level though their average age is slightly less, however, the differences in income levels are not marked. On the whole, however, it may be asserted that earning levels rise with level of education.

#### V.2.3 Monthly Income Levels of Other Family Members:

The average monthly income of other family members varied from Rs.4,754 to Rs.7375 (Table V.6). Urban women workers in other occupations usually come from lower income families (Ranade and Ramachandran, 1970; Talwar, 1984), their main motivation for work being economic necessity. Our sample shows an average income of other family members to be Rs.5,688. The income of other family members of doctors was highest at Rs.7,375 followed by auditors and accountants and architects and engineers. The other family members of social scientists had the lowest average monthly income of Rs.4,754.

Turning to the sources of income of other family members we observe that the main source of income is

Table V.6 : Average Monthly Income of Other Family Members by Source

Category	Ser-vice	Profe-ssion	Trade/Business	Pro-perty	Agri-cul-ture	Inter-ests/Dividends	Any Other	Total
	(Nos.)							
1. Scientists	4,199 (79.1)	50 (0.9)	875 (16.5)	-	-	35 (0.7)	150 (2.8)	5,309 (100.0)
2. Doctors	2,605 (35.3)	2,350 (31.9)	1,250 (16.9)	315 (4.3)	200 (2.7)	235 (3.2)	420 (5.7)	7,375 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3,440 (71.6)	305 (6.3)	400 (8.3)	37 (0.8)	-	265 (5.5)	358 (7.5)	4,805 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	3,360 (61.5)	700 (12.8)	1,000 (18.3)	-	100 (1.8)	70 (1.3)	235 (4.3)	5,465 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	3,410 (61.4)	375 (6.8)	750 (13.5)	-	325 (5.9)	75 (1.4)	617 (11.1)	5,552 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	5,135 (85.1)	50 (0.8)	250 (4.1)	450 (7.5)	-	40 (0.7)	110 (1.8)	6,035 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3,371 (70.9)	-	550 (11.6)	-	-	100 (2.1)	733 (15.4)	4,754 (100.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	3,820 (55.4)	1,500 (21.8)	300 (4.4)	50 (0.7)	-	750 (10.9)	470 (6.8)	6,890 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3,910 (69.7)	300 (5.3)	700 (12.5)	-	-	325 (5.8)	375 (6.7)	5,610 (100.0)
TOTAL	3,687 (64.8)	574 (10.1)	697 (12.3)	97 (1.7)	74 (1.3)	179 (3.1)	380 (6.7)	5,688 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

through service (64.8 per cent) followed by business (12.3 per cent) and then profession (10.1 per cent). The contribution of other sources to the total income was very small. One reason for the affluence of family member's of doctors is that a significant number of family members are in trade/business (refer to Chapter III), which accounts for 16.9 per cent of the average income other family members of that category. The contribution of business to income of family members is also high in the case of scientists, whereas it is low in the case of architects and engineers (4.1 per cent), auditors and accountants (4.4 per cent) and degree college teachers (8.3 per cent). Service as a source of income for other family members is lower than average for doctors and auditors and accountants and it is much higher than average for them in profession. Profession as a source of income for other family members of architects and engineers and scientists is very low. No family member of social scientists had entered into profession.

V.2.4 Per Cent Contribution of Respondents to Total Household Income : We may now examine the contribution of the respondent to total family income. This will give

us an idea not only of their contribution but also their economic status within the household. Table V.7 shows that the respondents contribute to a fairly high percentage (38.5 per cent) of total household income.<sup>3</sup> The highest contribution to household income is from doctors (46.5 per cent) followed by scientists, university teachers, administrative and executive workers and degree college teachers - all contributing more than 40 per cent of the household income. Social scientists,

Table V.7 : Per Cent Contribution by Respondents to Average Monthly Household Income

Category	Self	Other Family Members
1. Scientists	44.9	55.1
2. Doctors	46.5	53.5
3. Degree College Teachers	40.5	59.5
4. University Teachers	43.1	56.9
5. Lawyers	17.3	82.7
6. Architects and Engineers	31.1	68.9
7. Social Scientists	34.7	65.3
8. Auditors and Accountants	33.7	66.3
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	41.6	58.4
TOTAL	38.5	61.5

auditors and accountants and architects and engineers contribute about one-third of the household income. Lawyers contribute the lowest (only 17.3 per cent) percentage of household income. The reason behind this is that, except one, all lawyers are relatively young, unmarried and living with their parents. Besides this, as has been observed earlier, their average income is relatively low. From this analysis we can conclude, that, women professional workers do not just 'supplement' family income but contribute significantly to it. This is bound to have a favourable impact on their status within the household and consequently in society.

### V.3 Household Expenditure

V.3.1 Total Monthly Household Expenditure : The total monthly household expenditure of the respondent was Rs.4,052. Considering that the total household income is fairly high, the amount spent on household expenditure is on the lower side. It was observed during the survey that the respondents were either hesitant to disclose the exact figures or they were not aware of the exact amount spent on the various items. Thus some degree of under reporting cannot be ruled out. With



these reservations the data in Table V.8 can be analysed. University teachers had the highest monthly household expenditure of Rs.4,928 followed by doctors, scientists and administrative and executive workers - all spending more than Rs.4,000 on household expenditure. Lawyers have the lowest household monthly expenditure of Rs.3,067.

A slightly different picture emerges while analysing per capita household expenditure. In this case administrative, executive and managerial workers have the highest expenditure of Rs.1,231 and are followed by university teachers, degree college teachers, scientists and doctors - all having a per capita expenditure of more than Rs.1,000. Here again lawyers have the lowest figure of Rs.596. This is in consonance with the fact that they belong to the least affluent category of workers in terms of income levels. Also auditors and accountants have a lower than average per capita household expenditure.

Expenditure on food formed one-third of the total expenditure showing thus that the higher income groups spend more on non-food items than those belonging to the lower economic strata, in whose case expenditure on food generally forms a major proportion of expenditure. House

Table V.8 : Average Monthly Household Expenditure of Respondents by Major Items

Category	(in Rs.)									
	Food	Fuel & Electricity	Clothing & Footwear	Medical Expenses	Education	Transport	Entertainment	House Rent	Servants' Salaries	Miscellaneous
1. Scientists	1,470 (32.4)	287 (6.3)	303 (6.7)	77 (1.7)	367 (8.1)	398 (8.8)	142 (3.1)	510 (11.2)	160 (3.5)	823 (18.1)
2. Doctors	1,705 (34.9)	458 (9.4)	312 (6.4)	45 (0.9)	393 (8.1)	437 (9.0)	180 (3.7)	145 (3.0)	310 (6.4)	895 (18.3)
3. Degree College Teachers	1,142 (32.5)	238 (6.8)	305 (8.7)	186 (5.3)	220 (6.3)	366 (10.4)	96 (2.7)	318 (9.1)	146 (4.2)	492 (14.0)
4. University Teachers	1,650 (33.5)	265 (5.4)	255 (5.2)	107 (2.2)	280 (5.7)	439 (8.9)	110 (2.2)	600 (12.2)	217 (4.4)	1,005 (20.4)
5. Lawyers	1,293 (42.2)	161 (5.2)	189 (6.2)	75 (2.4)	103 (3.4)	257 (8.4)	56 (1.8)	261 (8.5)	122 (4.0)	550 (17.9)
6. Architects and Engineers	1,442 (36.7)	258 (6.6)	252 (6.4)	68 (1.7)	200 (5.1)	381 (9.7)	132 (3.4)	374 (9.5)	180 (4.6)	645 (16.4)
7. Social Scientists	1,155 (34.8)	211 (6.4)	235 (7.1)	101 (3.0)	158 (4.8)	281 (8.5)	94 (2.8)	385 (11.6)	134 (4.0)	566 (17.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	1,290 (35.0)	225 (6.1)	215 (5.8)	105 (2.9)	190 (5.2)	430 (11.7)	115 (3.1)	440 (12.0)	138 (3.7)	533 (14.5)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1,350 (30.5)	253 (5.7)	328 (7.4)	135 (3.0)	268 (6.0)	457 (10.3)	182 (4.1)	562 (12.7)	231 (5.2)	667 (15.0)
TOTAL	1,394 (34.4)	264 (6.5)	269 (6.6)	100 (2.5)	245 (6.0)	380 (9.4)	123 (3.0)	397 (9.8)	185 (4.6)	695 (17.2)
										954 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

rent accounted for 9.8 per cent of the expenditure followed by transport (9.4 per cent), fuel and electricity (6.5 per cent), clothing and footwear (6.6 per cent) and education (6.0 per cent). 17.2 per cent of the expenditure was on miscellaneous items. Expenditure on entertainment was only Rs.123 which is on the lower side. The general pattern of expenditure was similar in all categories except for a few variations. Lawyers spend more than average on food (42.2 per cent). Doctors spend a negligible amount on medical expenses as it is free for them whereas degree college teachers spend more than average on this item. Doctors and scientists spend relatively more on education and lawyers spend relatively less on the same. Lawyers also spend lower than average amount on entertainment. Auditors and accountants and administrative and managerial workers spend more on house rent whereas doctors spend relatively less on rent.

7.3.2 Contribution of Respondents to Household Expenditure : Having analysed total household expenditure on various items we now examine to what extent the respondents contribute to household expenditure. We have examined separately respondents living with their households, living with their parents and living singly. This

is done to observe any differences in the pattern of contribution to household expenditure being influenced by residential characteristics.

Table V.9 shows the distribution of respondents living with their husbands according to contribution to household expenditure. It was observed that in 95.8 per cent cases both the respondent and the husband contributed to household expenditure. This pattern focuses on the fact that women professional workers do not join the labour force just to spend their time, because despite the fact that they belong to affluent families, they contribute actively in financing the household expenses.<sup>4</sup> Only three respondents made no contribution to household expenditure. One was a scientist whose family members were in business and she stayed in a joint family. Also one of the two degree college teachers whose husbands alone contributed to household expenditure had a joint family. Thus we may deduce that in a joint family, the women workers earnings are considered 'secondary'. In the case of the other degree college teacher, no specific reason could be deduced as to why she did not contribute at all to household expenditure. Only one respondent reported to be contributing by herself to total household expenditure. She was earning

Table V.9 : Distribution of Respondents Living with Their Husband According to Contribution to Household Expenditure

Category	(Nos)			
	By the Respondent Alone	By the Husband Alone	By Both	Total
1. Scientists	-	1 ( 5.9)	16 (94.1)	17 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	-	17 (100.0)	17 (100.0 )
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (8.3)	2 (16.7)	9 (75.0)	12 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	-	15 (100.0)	15 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	-	12 (100.0)	12 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	-	9 (100.0)	9 (100.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	-	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	-	12 (100.0)	12 (100.0)
TOTAL	1 (1.0)	3 ( 3.1)	92 ( 95.8)	96 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

more than her husband which could be a possible reason for contributing alone to household expenditure. No other substantive reason could be deduced.

A fairly different picture emerges regarding respondents living with their parents. Table V.10 reveals that only 56.1 per cent of respondents living with their parents gave a part of their salary to their parents for household expenditure whereas, 43.9 per cent of the respondents kept all their salary for their own use and thus do not contribute at all to household expenditure. This observation of non-contribution to household expenditure is because of the fact that almost all of these respondents belong to the younger age-group and all of them are unmarried. Thus we see the continued existence of the age-old convention that if a daughter is living with their parents then the parents support her. Another reason may be that the salary of younger girls is being saved for their marriage expenses and which, despite legislations banning it, is still widely prevalent today. However, all the doctors and two-thirds of scientists, university teachers, auditors and accountants and lawyers give a part of their salary to their parents for household



Table V.10 : Distribution of Respondents Living with Their Parents According to Contribution to Household Expenditure

Category	(Nos.)		
	Keep all Salary for Own use	Give a Part of it to Parents	Total
1. Scientists	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	2 (100.0)	2 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (50.0)	2 (50.0)	4 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	7 (38.9)	11 (61.1)	18 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	6 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)	10 (100.0)
8. Auditors and Accountants	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	6 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (60.0)	2 (40.0)	5 (100.0)
TOTAL	25 (43.9)	32 (56.1)	57 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

expenditure, whereas only 40 per cent of social scientists and administrative and executive workers contribute to household expenditure. 60 per cent of the respondents in these two categories keep all their salary for their use. One-third of scientists, university teachers and auditors and accountants do not contribute at all to household expenditure.

In the case of women residing singly, it was observed, that almost all young unmarried girls living as paying guests or in hostels owned by the Institutions where they were working, gave a part of their salary to their parents, which is contrary as regards young unmarried girls living with their parents. The reason behind this may be that, living singly, gives them a greater sense of economic independence and responsibility towards their parents. A major proportion ( five respondents out of eight) who kept their salary for their use only were either widows or elderly unmarried women. As they contributed totally to their own household expenditure obviously they did not give a part of their salaries to their parents.

V.3.3 Per Cent Contribution of Respondents to Household Expenditure : We had observed earlier that almost all respondents living with their husbands contributed to household expenditure. We now examine their per cent contribution which is recorded in Table V.11. Average per cent contribution to household expenditure is 47.8. Thus we can conclude that respondents living with their husbands are sharing a nearly proportionate burden of the expenditure with their spouse. 65 per cent of the respondents are contributing to 50 per cent or more of the expenditure and only about 35 per cent of the respondents are contributing to less than 50 per cent of the household expenditure. An interesting observation is that 10.8 per cent of the respondents contribute to 70 per cent and more of household expenditure.

Degree college teachers have the highest average per cent contribution to expenditure (57.8) followed by scientists (54.4), whereas, architects and engineers (39.6) and social scientists (42.8) had a much lower than average per cent contribution. More than 70 per cent of scientists, degree college teachers and doctors contributed 50 per cent or more of the household expenditure.

Table V.11 : Per Cent Contribution of Respondents Living with Their Husbands to Household Expenditure

(Nos.)

Category	Below 40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80 & Above	Total	Average Per cent Contribution
1. Scientists	1 ( 6.3)	2 (12.5)	7 (43.8)	3 (18.8)	1 ( 6.3)	2 (12.5)	16 (100.0)	54.4
2. Doctors	1 ( 5.9)	4 (23.5)	9 (52.9)	1 ( 5.9)	2 (11.8)	-	17 (100.0)	48.8
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	-	-	3 (33.3)	9 (100.0)	57.8
4. University Teachers	2 (13.3)	4 (26.7)	7 (46.7)	2 (13.3)	-	-	15 (100.0)	45.7
5. Lawyers	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	50.0
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (33.7)	2 (16.7)	5 (41.7)	1 ( 8.3)	-	-	12 (100.0)	39.6
7. Social Scientists	3 (33.3)	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	-	1 (11.1)	-	9 (100.0)	42.8
8. Auditors and Accountants	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	50.0
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (25.0)	3 (25.0)	4 (33.3)	1 ( 8.3)	-	1 ( 8.3)	12 (100.0)	44.6
TOTAL	15 (16.3)	17 (18.5)	42 (45.7)	8 ( 8.7)	4 ( 4.3)	6 ( 6.5)	92 (100.0)	47.8

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

40 per cent and more of architects and engineers, administrative and executive workers, social scientists and university teachers contributed less than 50 per cent of the total household expenditure.

We had observed earlier that quite a few respondents living with their parents do not contribute at all to household expenditure, as parents of unmarried girls do not conventionally take money from them. It would be interesting to study the per cent contribution of those respondents who do contribute to the household expenses. Table V.12 shows that the average per cent contribution of respondents living with their parents to household expenditure is 42.0. This is lower than the average per cent contribution of respondents living with their husbands - which was 47.8. This difference is explained by the fact that most of the respondents living with their parents belong to the younger age-group and thus their parents are still earning. Given this, and the fact that parents do not conventionally take money from unmarried girls, even if they do contribute, their contribution is expected to be marginal. 59.4 per cent of the respondents living with their parents contributed to less than 50 per cent of the household expenditure and about 40 per cent contributed to more than 50 per cent of the expenditure.

**Table V.12 : Per Cent Contribution of Respondent Living with Their Parents to Household Expenditure**

Category	(Nos.)						Total	Average Per Cent Contribution
	Below 30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70 & Above		
1. Scientists	-	-	1 (50.0)	-	1 (50.0)	-	2 (100.0)	50.0
2. Doctors	-	1 (50.0)	-	-	-	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)	55.0
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	-	-	2 (100.0)	45.0
4. University Teachers	1 (50.0)	-	-	-	1 (50.0)	-	2 (100.0)	40.0
5. Lawyers	3 (27.3)	2 (13.2)	1 (9.1)	4 (36.4)	-	1 (9.1)	11 (100.0)	40.9
6. Architects and Engineers	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	-	-	-	-	3 (100.0)	28.3
7. Social Scientists	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	-	1 (25.0)	-	4 (100.0)	37.5
8. Auditors and Accountants	2 (50.0)	-	1 (25.0)	-	-	1 (25.0)	4 (100.0)	37.5
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	-	-	1 (50.0)	-	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)	65.0
<b>TOTAL</b>	8 (25.0)	6 (18.8)	5 (15.6)	6 (18.8)	3 (9.4)	4 (12.5)	32 (100.0)	42.0

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



The highest average per cent contribution of respondents living with their parents was in the case of administrative, executive and managerial workers (65.0). They were followed by doctors (55 per cent) and scientists (50 per cent). Architects and engineers had the lowest average per cent contribution to expenditure - only 28.3. Social scientists and auditors and accountants also had a lower than average per cent contribution. A major proportion of social scientists, auditors and accountants and architects and engineers contributed less than 50 per cent of the household expenditure. However, all administrative and executive workers and 50 per cent of scientists, doctors, degree college and university teachers contributed more than 50 per cent of total household expenditure.

Though all young unmarried respondents residing singly contributed to household expenditure, their per cent contribution was relatively low. It ranged from a minimum of 20 per cent to a maximum of 40 per cent. This relatively low level of contribution is because a major part of their salary is utilised for their own expenses. Specially in the case of respondents residing as paying guests, it was observed during the survey that a significant proportion of their salaries went in paying the rent.

#### V.4 Savings

We have deduced from the above analysis that the respondents' income and that of the other family members places them in the affluent group of the population. We now examine their level of savings. No direct assessment of savings could be calculated, but a general idea of savings per respondent can be arrived at by deducting from the average income of the respondents and of the other family members average household expenditure reported. The savings thus calculated include income-tax payment, L.I.C. and Provident Fund contribution and other monthly deductions from the salary. Thus the average figure of savings is found to be quite high at Rs.5,200 (Table V.13). Savings figures ranged from Rs.3,645 for lawyers to Rs.8,915 for doctors. Savings as a per cent of income was highest for doctors and auditors and accountants (both 64.6 per cent) followed by scientists (52.9 per cent) and administrative, executive and managerial workers (53.9 per cent) and university teachers (48.7 per cent). The relatively high level of savings in all categories further reaffirms the fact that the respondents belong to the affluent section of the population and are in an economically comfortable situation.

Table V.13 : Savings Per Month Per Household

Category	(in Rs.)		
	Average Income (1)	Average Ex- penditure (2)	Savings (1 - 2) (3)
1. Scientists	9,628 (100.0)	4,537 (47.1)	5,091 (52.9)
2. Doctors	13,795 (100.0)	4,880 (35.4)	8,915 (64.6)
3. Degree College Teachers	8,070 (100.0)	3,509 (44.5)	4,561 (56.5)
4. University Teachers	9,601 (100.0)	4,928 (51.3)	4,673 (48.7)
5. Lawyers	6,712 (100.0)	3,067 (45.7)	3,645 (54.3)
6. Architects and Engineers	8,755 (100.0)	3,932 (44.9)	4,823 (55.1)
7. Social Scientists	7,280 (100.0)	3,320 (45.6)	3,960 (54.4)
8. Auditors and Accountants	10,385 (100.0)	3,681 (35.4)	6,704 (64.6)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	9,612 (100.0)	4,433 (46.1)	5,179 (53.9)
TOTAL	9,252 (100.0)	4,052 (43.8)	5,200 (56.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

## V.5 Conclusions

The above analysis of earning levels and asset ownership of the respondents shows that they belong to the affluent group of the population. The average value of durable goods and assets possessed by the respondents households is a little over Rs.3 lakhs. Almost all the respondents possessed a television set and a refrigerator. We observed increasing use of luxury items like a video and also of mechanical domestic appliances like washing machine. 82 per cent of the average value of durable goods and assets was invested in sound assets like a house land, car and ornaments.

An analysis into the level of earnings of the respondent revealed that educated professional women workers earned much more than educated urban workers in other professions - their average monthly income was Rs.3,564. We observed same differences in earning levels within the categories. Doctors had a very high income level, whereas lawyers had a relatively very low level of earnings. The low income level of lawyers was explained by the fact that they belonged to a younger age group and were recent entrants to the labour force. Also the survey revealed that lawyers felt that the litigants were biased against them because of their sex.

The major source of monthly income in almost all the categories was service. This corroborates our hypothesis that among educated urban women workers there is a preference for salaried jobs. However, a significant proportion of doctors, lawyers and auditors and accountants got their income from profession. An almost similar pattern holds good for the level of earnings and sources of income of other family members. Our hypothesis that level of earnings and educational qualifications of professional workers are positively correlated was corroborated by our data. Thus graduates had the lowest average earnings and doctorates had the highest average income.

It was observed that bulk of the household expenditure of the respondents was on non-food items and only one-third was on food. An interesting phenomenon was observed regarding contribution of respondents to household expenditure. Almost all respondents living with their husbands contributed to household expenditure and a majority of them accounted for 50 per cent or more of the household expenditure, thus sharing a proportionate burden of expenses with their spouses. On the other hand a large proportion of respondents living with their

parents did not contribute to household expenditure. Out of those who did, a majority contributed less than 50 per cent of the expenditure. The reason being that conventionally parents do not take financial support from young unmarried daughters. Almost all young, unmarried girls residing singly contributed marginally to household expenditure.

Thus, we conclude that as a woman enters the professional cadres, she achieves equality of status, both in terms of income levels and in her economic contribution to the household expenditure. This conclusion is in consonance with a part of our hypothesis that being a part of the labour force has a favourable impact on the economic and social status of women. Therefore, if more women enter the category of 'professional workers', it will result in a drastic and positive change in the economic status of the women workers in our country as well as in the outlook of society as a whole.



## NOTES

1. Ramanamma and Bambawale's (1987) study of women in the electronic industry, observed during their survey that in many homes women were the sole wage earners. So this trend of having financial independence is not strictly confined to professional workers only.
2. Papola's study (1986) on urban women workers in the formal sector of Lucknow observed a much lower average monthly household income of Rs.1514.
3. Ranade and Ramachandran's (1970) survey of educated women workers in Delhi observed that 50 per cent of their respondents earned from 25 - 50 per cent of the total income of their families.
4. In Britain the Social Science Department of the London School of Economics published a report in 1960, which observed that women did not enter the labour force for economic necessity 'for most women the aim was a higher standard of living for their families', implying thereby that they contributed actively to household expenditure.

## CHAPTER VI

Motivational Factors and Working ConditionsVI.0 Introduction

Any study of women workers must include in its purview the factors motivating them to enter the workforce and their working conditions. Considering that urban women have started entering the labour force in recent years, it is important to analyse what motivated them to break away from their stereo-type familial roles. It is just as important to observe their status once they do enter the workforce specially for women who have entered male-dominated occupations. Working conditions include a study of recruitment, benefits, travel to and from work, hours of work, physical environment, etc. (University of Michigan Survey, 1976). A number of studies in India have also looked into these parameters determining the working conditions of women workers (Sharma, 1973; Unwalla, 1977; Sharan, 1985, Jain, 1988) and factors motivating them to join the workforce (Wadhera, 1976; Kumar, 1982; Dingra, Ramanna and Bambawala, 1987).

We begin this chapter by analysing the factors affecting the respondents motivation to take professional training and enter the job market. Analysis of their occupational history throws light upon their age at joining work, number and reasons for job changes, methods of recruitment, interruptions in career, etc. We also study the nature of work of the respondents in terms of type of organisation where they work, nature of duties, working hours, benefits and allowances given to them and distance, time taken and mode of transport from home to office. Lastly we examine the extent of respondents' participation in employees union activities and focus on the reasons for non-participation of these workers in the union activities.

#### VI.1 Motivational Factors and Job Preferences

The Census of 1981 reveals that there has been a sharp increase in the number of female workers in both urban U.P. and Lucknow particularly in the case of professional workers.<sup>1</sup> It would thus be interesting to note why women take up professional training and enter the labour force. This section deals with this question

and also analyses the factors affecting job preferences for professional women workers.

#### VI.1.1 Factors Affecting Motivation to Take Up

Professional Training : The socialisation process prevalent in India perpetuates the myth the women's place is still in the home. Young girls are seldom encouraged to plan careers that involve extensive training. We, therefore, analyse what induced these professional workers to take up professional training. The most frequently mentioned factors (45 per cent) were 'personality development' and 'academic interest' (Table VI.1). An interesting and significant fact noted was that as many as 34 per cent of the respondents said they took up professional training to pursue a job. Only 4 respondents reported 'parental pressure' as a motivational factor which corroborates the above mentioned fact that females are generally not encouraged to take up professional training. Thus the respondents are more self-motivated in taking up professional training rather than taking it up due to parental pressure. In a few cases factors like advice or inspiration by parents, economic independence and lack of any other option were also mentioned.

Table VI.1 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Motivating Them to Take up Professional Training

Category	(Nos.)					
	It is a Status Symbol	For Academic Interest	Desire to Pursue a Job	Parental Pressure	For Personality Development	Other Factors
1. Scientists	-	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)	-	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)
2. Doctors	-	12 (60.0)	7 (35.0)	1 ( 5.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 ( 5.0)	11 (55.0)	4 (20.0)	-	9 (45.0)	1 ( 5.0)
4. University Teachers	-	17 (85.0)	8 (40.0)	-	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)
5. Lawyers	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	1 ( 5.0)	16 (80.0)	1 ( 5.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	7 (35.0)	11 (55.0)	-	5 (25.0)	-
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	-	6 (60.0)	1 (10.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	-	7 (35.0)	-	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)
TOTAL	7 ( 4.1)	76 (44.7)	58 (34.1)	4 ( 2.4)	75 (44.1)	12 ( 7.1)

Note : Figures in parentheses are percentages of total respondents in that category.



Within the different categories we observe that respondents taking training because of academic interest are predominantly scientists (85 per cent), university teachers (85 per cent), doctors (60 per cent) and degree college teachers (55 per cent). A significant proportion of architects, engineers, auditors and accountants took up professional training for personality development and self-fulfilment. Desire to pursue a job motivated 55 per cent of social scientists and 40 per cent of university teachers and auditors and accountants to take up professional training. Only seven respondents said that they went in for training because it was a status symbol. Overall we observe that academic interest and personality development followed by a desire to pursue a job motivated the respondents to take up professional training.

VI.1.2 Factors Motivating Respondents to Enter the Workforce : It has been observed that women belonging to the lower income groups work for purely economic reasons and as the family income level increases the role of non-economic reasons increases (Dhingra ). In higher income groups the motivating force behind seeking



employment is to improve the standard of living and for personal satisfaction as has been observed by Srivastava (1978) in her study of educated married women workers in Chandigarh. A study of women workers in Britain observes that only one-third of women work for dire economic needs, others work to improve their standard of living and for self-fulfilment (Zweig, 1952). In our sample we observe that 50 per cent of the respondents work for career ambitions and to utilise their professional training (Table VI.2). Almost 19 per cent of the respondents have reported that improvement in standard of living and economic independence (19.4 per cent) has motivated them to enter the labour force. In one-fifth of the cases motivation to serve society is prevalent. Among the four respondents registered in 'other factors', two took up a job to 'best utilise their time', one for self-fulfilment and one was a psychologist who wanted to help out people to cope with the pressures of life.

A large number of scientists, doctors, university teachers and architects and engineers said that utilisation of professional training was one of the motivating factors to start working. The reason being that in these professions, the training under-gone by the respondents

Table VI.2 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Motivating Them to Take a Job

Category	(Nos.)						
	Economic Independence	Improve- ment in Standard of Living	Career Ambi- tion	Utilise Profes- sional Training	Raise Status in So- Domestic Work	Bored with Society	Service to the Other Factors
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	7 (35.0)	15 (75.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	3 (15.0)
2. Doctors	-	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	13 (65.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	4 (20.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	10 (50.0)	6 (30.0)	12 (60.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)
4. University Teachers	-	-	15 (75.0)	12 (60.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)
5. Lawyers	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	10 (50.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	7 (35.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	13 (65.0)	12 (60.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)
7. Social Scientists	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	4 (20.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathe- maticians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	-	8 (80.0)	5 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	-	1 (10.0)
9. Administrative, Executive Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	9 (45.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	3 (15.0)
TOTAL	33 (19.4)	32 (18.8)	85 (50.0)	85 (50.0)	20 (11.8)	11 (6.5)	28 (16.5)
							4 (2.4)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

is rather extensive. Career ambitions was an important motivational factor for auditors and accountants (80 per cent), university teachers (75 per cent), architects and engineers (65 per cent) and degree college teachers (60 per cent). A much higher than average number of social scientists, scientists and degree college teachers were induced to work to improve their standard of living.<sup>2</sup> Economic independence motivated 50 per cent of degree college teachers to take up employment, whereas 35 per cent of lawyers took to practising because they wanted to serve society.

VI.1.3 Extent of Respondents Emulating Their Family Members in Choice of Profession : We have observed in Chapter III that there is a close affinity between the occupation of the respondent and that of her parental family and her husband. Table VI.3 shows that 30 per cent of respondents have emulated someone in their family while choosing a profession. More than half of these respondents have emulated their father. 7.6 per cent have gone into the same occupation as their mother, this figure is less compared to that of emulating the father because, as has been observed in Chapter III, very few respondents

Table VI.3 : Distribution of Respondents Having Emulated Someone in Their Family in Choice of Profession

Category	Father	Mother	Brother	Sister	Husband	Any Other Person	Total
	(Nos.)						
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	-	-	-	-	-	3 (15.0)
2. Doctors	6 (30.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	8 (40.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	-	-	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	5 (25.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	4 (20.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	7 (35.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	-	1 ( 5.0)	7 (35.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	-	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	6 (30.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	-	-	-	3 (30.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	-	9 (45.0)
TOTAL	27 (15.9)	13 ( 7.6)	4 ( 2.4)	5 ( 2.9)	2 ( 1.2)	1 ( 0.6)	52 (30.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

have working mothers. Two of the respondents have emulated their husband's in choice of profession and one architect has emulated her grand father. The frequency of respondents having followed their fathers' footsteps is more in the case of doctors (30 per cent). Whereas, 15 per cent of lawyers, social scientists and administrative and executive workers have emulated their mother while planning a career. However, we conclude that almost 70 per cent of the respondents are new entrants to the labour force and therefore have been self-motivated to join the particular profession rather than because of parental pressure or example.

VI.1.4 Factors Affecting Job Preferences : We have hypothesised that job preferences for women are guided by non-transferability of jobs, level of earnings, maternity and social security benefits and attitude of husband/ father. Table VI.4 throws light on this issue. We observe that non-transferability, level of earnings, suitable working hours and bright promotional prospects are the most frequently mentioned factors guiding job preferences. 81.2 per cent of respondents mentioned non-transferability as a factor and in 27.6 per cent of cases



Table VI.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Affecting Job Preferences

Factors Affecting Job Preferences	Priority					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
1. Non-Transferability	147 (27.6)	35 (20.6)	24 (14.1)	19 (11.2)	13 (7.6)	138 (81.2)
2. Level of Earnings	22 (12.9)	37 (21.8)	30 (17.6)	26 (15.3)	19 (11.2)	134 (78.8)
3. Suitable Working Hours	17 (10.0)	42 (24.7)	25 (14.7)	22 (12.9)	23 (13.5)	129 (75.9)
4. Bright Promotional Prospects	47 (27.6)	23 (13.5)	20 (11.8)	23 (13.5)	14 (8.2)	127 (74.7)
5. Less Chance of Travelling	3 (1.8)	17 (10.0)	24 (14.1)	16 (9.4)	18 (10.6)	78 (45.9)
6. Provision of Social Security Benefits	4 (2.4)	1 (0.6)	18 (10.6)	20 (11.8)	27 (15.9)	70 (41.2)
7. Should be Approved by Husband/Father	11 (6.5)	9 (5.3)	6 (3.5)	17 (10.0)	6 (3.5)	49 (28.8)
8. Less Demanding or Strenuous	4 (2.4)	1 (0.6)	9 (5.3)	11 (6.5)	20 (11.8)	45 (26.5)
9. Suitable Distance from Home to Office	-	3 (1.8)	10 (5.9)	12 (7.1)	15 (8.8)	40 (23.5)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentage to total respondents.



it was mentioned as the most important factor guiding job preferences. 78.8 per cent of the respondents gave importance to level of earnings and 12.9 per cent felt that it was the most important factor. Suitable working hours and bright promotional prospects attracted 75 per cent of the respondents and 10 per cent and 27.6 per cent respectively felt that they were the most important factors guiding job preferences. 40 per cent to 45 per cent of the respondents gave importance to less chance of travelling and social security benefits while choosing a job. Less than 30 per cent of the respondents reported approval of husband/father, less demanding or strenuous job and suitable distance from home to office as deciding factors in taking up a job. Thus our hypothesis is corroborated that level of earnings and non-transferability along with social security benefits and attitude of husband/father are the main factors affecting the respondents in choice of job.

## VI.2 Occupational History

We will now examine the occupational background of professional women workers. This will throw light upon their work history in terms of duration of service, number

of job changes, methods of recruitment and whether there have been any interruptions in their career.

VI.2.1 Age at Joining Work : The average age at joining work for our sample is 24.2 years (Table VI.5) signifying that professional workers take up a job right after completing their education and professional training. The highest average age was for doctors and university teachers (26.2 years). For doctors the reason was that their training is very extensive and lengthy. The same holds good for university teachers as all of them were Ph.D.'s, besides which getting a job in the university is fairly tough and time consuming. Architects and engineers and auditors and accountants have a relatively low average age signifying that these workers enter the labour force immediately after completing their professional courses. This is further strengthened by the fact that 20 per cent of auditors and accountants and 15 per cent of architects and engineers had joined the labour force at ages below 21 years. A large proportion of the respondents had joined the labour force at ages between 21-25 years (57 per cent), particularly administrative and executive workers, architects and engineers and degree college teachers. We may conclude

Table VI.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to Age at Joining Work

Category	Below 21 Yrs	21-23 Years	23-25 Years	25-27 Years	27-29 Years	29 Years & Above	Total	(Nos.)	Average Age at Entry (Years)
1. Scientists	1 (5.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	20	23.8
2. Doctors	-	1 (5.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)	20	26.2
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)	20	23.4
4. University Teachers	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)	20	26.2
5. Lawyers	-	1 (5.0)	11 (55.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	-	20 (100.0)	20	24.6
6. Architects and Engineers	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	9 (45.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	20	22.3
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)	20	24.9
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathe- maticians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	2 (20.0)	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	-	-	10 (100.0)	10	22.5
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	11 (55.0)	2 (10.0)	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	20	23.1
TOTAL	13 (7.6)	41 (24.1)	56 (32.9)	28 (16.5)	16 (9.4)	16 (9.4)	170 (100.0)	170	24.2

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

that age at joining the work-force is determined by the minimum period of education/training required in particular professions.

VI.2.2 Duration of Service : Various studies have thrown light upon the length of service of women workers. Talwar's (1984) study on women workers in Jodhpur observes that the average service period of the respondents was 8.3 years. Our sample has a slightly higher average duration of service of 10.8 years (Table VI.6). The longest duration of service was in the case of university teachers (16.8 years) followed by degree college teachers (15.5 years), scientists (14.7 years) and doctors (12 years). The reason behind this being that these professions have been accessible to women for a considerably longer period as has been observed earlier. In the rest of the categories barring social scientists and one managerial worker, none of the respondents have been in the labour force for more than 15 years, implying that in these professions women workers are recent entrants. This is further reaffirmed by the fact that the largest number of respondents (31.8 per cent) have started working only in the past five years, where the largest proportion

Table VI.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Duration of Service

Category	Below 5 Yrs	5-10 Years	10-15 Years	15-20 Years	20-25 Years	25-30 Years	30 and Above	Total	(Nos.)	Average Duration of Service
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	14.7	
2. Doctors	5 (25.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)	-	20 (100.0)	12.0	
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)	15.5	
4. University Teachers	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	7 (35.0)	5 (25.0)	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	16.8	
5. Lawyers	15 (75.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	3.7	
6. Architects and Engineers	12 (60.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	5.5	
7. Social Scientists	4 (20.0)	6 (30.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	11.4	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	6 (60.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	-	-	-	-	10 (100.0)	5.0	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	8 (40.0)	-	-	-	1 (5.0)	20 (100.0)	9.8	
TOTAL	54 (31.8)	36 (21.2)	32 (18.8)	24 (14.1)	11 (6.5)	4 (2.4)	9 (5.3)	170 (100.0)	10.8	

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



of workers are from the same categories mentioned above. However, 70 per cent of university teachers and 45 per cent of scientists have been working for 15-25 years as these are traditional occupations. We thus observe that duration of service is longer for respondents in traditional professions and shorter for those in non-traditional occupations.

VI.2.3 Number of Job Changes : Our survey revealed that 74.1 per cent of the respondents had not changed their jobs (Table VI.7). This means that women professional workers do not indulge in job hopping. 13.5 per cent of the respondents had changed their jobs once and 7.6 per cent had changed it twice. Only 8 respondents had changed their jobs three or more times. The highest frequency of job changes was in the case of managerial and administrative workers (50 per cent) because in this profession job hopping facilitates increased remunerations and promotions. 35 per cent of architects and engineers have also changed jobs possibly for similar reasons. We observed that 45 per cent of university teachers changed jobs where they either changed jobs from temporary to permanent posts, from degree college or



Table VI.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number of Job Changes

Category					(Nos.)
	No Change	One Change	Two Changes	Three or More Changes	Total
1. Scientists	15 (75.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	15 (75.0)	4 (20.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	14 (70.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	13 (65.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	15 (75.0)	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (80.0)	2 (20.0)	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	10 (50.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	126 (74.1)	23 (13.5)	13 ( 7.6)	8 ( 4.7)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

school teachers to the university or due to transfers. One-fourth of degree college teachers and social scientists have changed jobs.

The incidence of job change is lowest among doctors (20 per cent). This may be because for doctors it is essential to create trust amongst their patients which occurs with time, therefore, once they have established themselves in an institution, they rarely change jobs. All lawyers interviewed were in private practice, thus this dimension does not apply to them. Thus, in general the respondents preferred to stay in one institution and establish themselves there instead of changing jobs.

VI.2.4 Reasons for Job Changes : For those respondents who did change jobs, the major reason was 'better prospects' - for 59 per cent of respondents in first change of job and 52.4 per cent of respondents in second change of job (Table VI.8). Transfer of spouse was also an important factor for changes in both first and second job. Only two respondents in both first and second job change reported conflict with their superiors as a reason for changing jobs. 29.5 per cent of the respondents in

Table VI.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Factors Affecting Job Changes

Category	First Job Change					Second Job Change					(Nos.)
	Better Pros- pects	Trans- fer of Spouse	Conf- lict with Super- ior	Other Reasons	Total	Better Pros- pects	Trans- fer of Spouse	Conf- lict with Super- ior	Other Reasons	Total	
1. Scientists	2 (40.0)	-	-	3 (60.0)	5 (100.0)	-	1 (33.3)	-	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)	
2. Doctors	-	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	2 (50.0)	4 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (80.0)	-	-	1 (20.0)	5 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	1 (100.0)	
4. University Teachers	5 (83.3)	1 (16.7)	-	-	6 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	-	-	-	4 (100.0)	
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
6. Architects and Engineers	6 (85.7)	-	1 (14.3)	-	7 (100.0)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	-	-	3 (100.0)	
7. Social Scientists	3 (60.0)	-	-	2 (40.0)	5 (100.0)	2 (50.0)	-	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	4 (100.0)	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (50.0)	-	-	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	-	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial workers	5 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	-	4 (40.0)	10 (100.0)	3 (60.0)	1 (20.0)	1 (20.0)	-	5 (100.0)	
TOTAL	26 (59.1)	3 (6.8)	2 (4.5)	13 (29.5)	44 (100.0)	11 (52.4)	4 (19.0)	2 (9.5)	4 (19.0)	21 (100.0)	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

first job change gave various other reasons for change in job. Amongst them a few changed jobs because they were either returning to India or going abroad, three respondents reported that they changed jobs because they got married and some did so because their parents got transferred. Four respondents reported other reasons for second job change, out of which two changed jobs because of child-birth and two were returning to India. A relatively high proportion of architects and engineers (85 per cent), degree college (80 per cent) and university (83.3 per cent) teachers, who changed their job for the first time, were motivated by better prospects. The same holds good for all university teachers, 66.7 per cent of architects and engineers and 60 per cent of administrative and executive workers who went in for a second job change. We may thus re-assert that 'better prospects' is the major guiding factor for job changes in these workers implying that they are career-oriented.

VI.2.5 Methods of Recruitment : Various studies have analysed the methods of recruitment for women workers and there are contrary observations depending upon the section of workers studied. Srivastava's (1978) study of

Industrial and non-industrial married women workers concludes that a large majority of respondents secured jobs with the help of friends and relatives. Whereas, Ranade and Ramchandran's (1970) study of women workers in Bombay observed that for 38.5 per cent of the respondents, newspapers were the source of information regarding employment. Our analysis of methods of recruitment (Table VI.9) takes up first job and present job of the respondent separately. The total number of respondents in the first job is less than the sample size because lawyers have not been accounted for as they are self-employed and the same holds good for four doctors. We observe that in both the first job (74 per cent of respondents) and present job (83.6 per cent of respondents) advertisements are the major source of information and recruitment. The role of friends and relatives is relatively low in both first job (9.6 per cent of respondents) and present job (3.5 per cent of respondents). The respondents rarely turned to the Employment Exchange to get a job. A few respondents have reported other methods of recruitment which includes campus interviews in some cases, some respondents (mostly teachers) were students in the same institution, while some also got a job through direct contact with the



Table VI.2 : Distribution of Respondents According to Methods of Recruitment

Category	First Job				Total	Present Job				(Nos.)
	Employ- ment Exchange	Adverti- sements	Friends & Rela- tives	Other Methods		Employ- ment Exchange	Adverti- sements	Friends & Rela- tives	Other Methods	
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	17 (85.0)	-	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)	-	19 (95.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	1 ( 6.3)	13 (81.3)	2 (12.5)	-	16 (100.0)	-	10 (83.3)	2 (16.7)	-	12 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	16 (80.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)	-	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	-	19 (95.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	-	15 (75.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)	-	17 (85.0)	-	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	6 (30.0)	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	4 (20.0)	14 (70.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	5 (50.0)	-	5 (50.0)	10 (100.0)	-	5 (55.5)	-	4 (44.4)	9 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	15 (75.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)	-	17 (85.0)	-	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	8 (5.5)	108 (74.0)	14 ( 9.6)	16 (11.0)	146 (100.0)	4 (2.8)	118 (83.6)	5 ( 3.5)	14 (10.0)	141 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



employer. A relatively large proportion of social scientists took the help of the Employment Exchange to get a job. The incidence of respondents getting a job through friends and relatives is higher than average in the case of administrative and executive workers in the first job and for doctors and degree college teachers in the present job. Our conclusions are thus in consonance with Ranade and Ramachandran's study mentioned above.

#### VI.2.6 Gap Between Seeking and Gaining Employment:

Table VI.10 throws light upon the time gap between seeking and gaining employment for the respondents. Here again the total figures of respondents in first job and present job is less than the sample size of 170 because all self-employed professionals are excluded from the analysis. The table highlights that in both first job (54.1 per cent) and present job (60.3 per cent), the largest proportion of respondents had to wait for less than three months to get a job. This shows that the period of unemployment for professional workers is relatively low. However, 21.9 per cent of respondents had to wait for 3-6 months in their first job and 16.3 per cent had the same time gap

in their present jobs. In both first and present job a fairly low proportion of the respondents had to wait for more than one year to get a job. An interesting fact noted was that all these respondents were degree college or university teachers except one who was a social scientist. The reason may be that the procedure for recruitment of these teachers is fairly lengthy besides which their recruitment is dependent upon period and number of vacancies in the university or college.

In the first job a relatively lower proportion of social scientists and administrative and executive workers got a job within three months of applying for it, and a relatively larger proportion of them got a job within 3-6 months of application. The time gap between seeking and gaining employment in present job was more (3-6 months) for a relatively larger proportion of social scientists (35 per cent). 44.1 per cent of auditors and accountants and one-fourth of administrative and executive workers had to wait between 6 months to 1 year to get their present jobs.

We conclude that on the whole respondents did not have much problem in getting a job as the period of

Table VI.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to Gap Between Seeking and Gaining Employment

Category	First Job						Present Job						Total	(Nos.)	
	Less than 3 months			More than 1 Year			Less than 3 Months			More than 1 Year					
	13	4	3	6	1	Year	3	6	Months	1	Year	1			Year
1. Scientists	13	4	3	(15.0)	-	-	20	14	3	(15.0)	3	-	20	(100.0)	
2. Doctors	9	4	3	(18.8)	-	-	16	8	3	(25.0)	1	-	12	(100.0)	
3. Degree College Teachers	10	2	3	(15.0)	5	(25.0)	20	13	-	(15.0)	3	4	20	(100.0)	
4. University Teachers	12	3	4	(20.0)	1	(5.0)	20	12	3	(15.0)	4	1	20	(100.0)	
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	(NA)	NA	(NA)	NA	NA	NA	(NA)	NA	NA	NA	(NA)	
6. Architects and Engineers	13	4	3	(15.0)	-	-	20	14	2	(10.0)	4	-	20	(100.0)	
7. Social Scientists	8	8	3	(15.0)	1	(5.0)	20	9	7	(35.0)	4	-	20	(100.0)	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	5	1	4	(40.0)	-	-	10	4	1	(11.1)	4	-	9	(100.0)	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	9	6	5	(25.0)	-	-	20	11	4	(25.0)	5	-	20	(100.0)	
TOTAL	79	32	28	(19.2)	7	(4.8)	146	85	23	(16.3)	28	5	141	(100.0)	
	(54.1)	(21.9)	(19.2)	(19.2)	(4.8)	(4.8)	(100.0)	(60.3)	(16.3)	(19.9)	(3.5)	(3.5)	(100.0)	(100.0)	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

frictional unemployment was fairly low. On the whole the labour market situation is favourable to them.

#### VI.2.7 Number and Duration of Interruptions in

Career : Studies in the west have observed that a large proportion of women workers leave the labour force for child bearing and rearing (Davidson and Cooper, 1984). Studies on Indian women workers, however, reveal that they rarely break their career for this reason (Srivastava, 1978; Talwar, 1984; Kapur, 1970). Table VI.11 shows that only 10 respondents (5.9 per cent of total respondents) reported interruption in career. It is interesting to note that all these cases were restricted to respondents in traditional professions where the age-group of the respondents is higher (refer to Chapter IV). In all these cases (barring two who had undergone major illness) the reasons for break in career was for child bearing and rearing. None of the respondents in the 'non-traditional' occupations had a break in their career to look after their children. This indicates the changing attitudes of these workers regarding the traditional concept that mothers have to sacrifice their career for their children. It thus shows that career orientation is stronger amongst

Table VI.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number and Duration of Interruptions in Career

Category	Number of Interruptions		Duration of Interruptions (Years)				(Nos.)
	1	2	Total	1 - 2	3 - 4	More than 4	
1. Scientists	3 (100.0)	-	3 (100.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)
2. Doctors	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	-	3 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	3 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)
TOTAL	5 (50.0)	5 (50.0)	10 (100.0)	4 (40.0)	4 (40.0)	2 (20.0)	10 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



younger women. It has been observed in Chapter IV that these respondents belong to a relatively younger age-group.

Analysing the duration of interruptions we observe that 40 per cent of these respondents took a break of 1-2 years and the same per cent took a break of 3-4 years. Two respondents took a break of more than 4 years in which one respondent had had a major accident and needed considerable time for recuperating and the other had taken a break for 10 years to look after her children. The average duration of gap is almost four years which implies that the respondents re-enter the labour force when their children start going to school.

### VI.3 Nature and Conditions of Work

After analysing the occupational background of the respondents, we now look into the nature of their work. This includes an analysis of the type of organisation where they work, the kind of work they do and their working hours, the facilities and benefits given to them, record of leaves availed by them and distance, time and mode of transport from home to office.



### VI.3.1 Particulars of the Organisation

#### VI.3.1.1 Type of Organisation : Table VI.12

focuses on the type of organisation where the sample professional workers are employed. The total figure noted here is less than the total sample size of 170 because self-employed professionals have not been included in this analysis. The table highlights that the largest proportion of workers (32.4 per cent) are from state government organisations. Only 9.2 per cent of the respondents work in private organisations. The second most favoured type of organisations are college/research institutions which accounts for all the scientists and degree college teachers. Within the categories we observe that 83 per cent of doctors, 65 per cent administrative and executive workers, 55 per cent of social scientists and 50 per cent of auditors and accountants and architects and engineers are in government service. A relatively large proportion of auditors, accountants, architects and engineers have entered the private sector indicating that women in these 'newer' professions are opting for private organisations. A higher than average proportion of auditors and accountants (30 per cent) and social scientists (25 per cent)

Table VI.12 : Distribution of Respondents According to Type of Organisation Where They Work

Category	Central Government	State Government	Joint Sector	Private Limited Company	Public Limited Company	College/Research Institutions	Voluntary Organisation	University	Total
									(Nos.)
1. Scientists	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	10 (83.3)	-	2 (16.7)	-	-	-	-	12 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	-	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 (5.0)	11 (55.0)	-	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	-	2 (10.0)	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	2 (20.0)	-	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	-	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	13 (65.0)	-	3 (15.0)	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	7 (4.9)	46 (32.4)	3 (2.1)	13 (9.2)	11 (7.7)	40 (28.2)	2 (1.4)	20 (41.1)	142 (100.0)

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

were in public sector companies. Also 20 per cent of auditors and accountants and administrative and executive workers were in central government organisations. The overall conclusion is that a majority of the respondents in our sample are in government service, specially organisations run by the state government.

#### VI.3.1.2 Number of Employees in Respondents

Organisation : We observe from Table VI.13 that the average number of employees in the respondents organisation is 552 indicating that the respondents work in fairly large organisations. The table reveals that 92.8 per cent of the total workers in the organisations are males and only 7.2 per cent are female showing that though women have started entering the professional cadres, they form a low proportion of total workers as compared to males. However, a majority of degree college teachers were females because the institutions covered were girls colleges only. We observe a relatively high proportion of female workers in the category of university teachers (16 per cent), doctors (15.5 per cent) and scientists (14.8 per cent). The reason being that teaching and research are traditionally 'female' occupations.<sup>3</sup> Women joining the medical profession is

Table VI.13 : Average Number of Employees in  
Respondents Organisation by Sex

Category	(Nos.)		
	Males	Females	Total
1. Scientists	554 (85.2)	96 (14.8)	650 (100.0)
2. Doctors	125 (84.5)	23 (15.5)	148 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	5 (11.9)	37 (88.1)	42 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	445 (84.0)	85 (16.0)	530 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	956 (95.2)	48 ( 4.8)	1004 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	575 (93.6)	39 ( 6.4)	614 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathe- maticians and Statisticians	238 (93.3)	17 ( 6.7)	255 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	436 (93.7)	29 ( 6.2)	465 (100.0)
TOTAL	487 (92.8)	38 ( 7.2)	525 (100.0)

Note : (1) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.  
(2) Self-Employed professionals are not included in this table.

also more accepted in our social framework. In all the non-traditional professions the representation of female workers is very low, particularly in the case of architects and engineers (4.8 per cent). We, therefore, conclude that though the representation of female workers is still relatively concentrated in the traditional sectors, women have started entering male dominated occupations.

#### VI.3.1.3 Number of Employees in Respondents

Department : A similar picture emerges on observing the number of male/female employees in respondents departments (Table VI.14). Here the representation of females is a little higher (10.4 per cent) than in the entire organisation. Their representation is relatively more in university and degree college teachers, doctors and scientists. The explanation for this is that in these professions there are certain departments which are 'female departments', this is particularly relevant in the case of university teachers and doctors. In the other categories, we observed during the survey that a considerable number of respondents were working in male



Table VI.14 : Average Number of Employees in  
Respondents Department by Sex

Category	(Nos.)		
	Males	Females	Total
1. Scientists	25 (78.1)	7 (21.9)	32 (100.0)
2. Doctors	19 (65.5)	10 (34.5)	29 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	3 (100.0)	3 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	15 (71.4)	6 (28.6)	21 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	124 (93.9)	8 (6.1)	132 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	48 (87.3)	7 (12.7)	55 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	30 (90.9)	3 (9.1)	33 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	118 (90.1)	13 (9.9)	131 (100.0)
TOTAL	60 (89.6)	7 (10.4)	67 (100.0)

Note : (1) Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

(2) All the lawyers are self-employed and have thus not been included in this analysis.



dominated departments particularly in the case of architects and engineers, auditors and accountants and administrative and executive workers. Therefore, we conclude that the respondents are still working in a male-dominated work environment as they have no sizeable presence in the departments covered.

VI.3.2 Nature of Duties : Table VI.15 focuses on the distribution of respondents according to nature of duties. 41.2 per cent of the respondents were engaged in teaching and research, this included all scientists, degree college and university teachers and 50 per cent of social scientists. An important fact emerging from this table is that 22.4 per cent of the respondents had administrative duties also which was generally male-dominated in most of the organisations covered. We also observed that besides administrative and executive workers (55 per cent) a relatively greater proportion of degree college teachers and doctors were involved in the administration of their organisations.

One-fourth of the architects and engineers had supervisory duties, followed by 20 per cent of social

Table VI.15 : Distribution of Respondents According to Nature of Duties

Category	(Nos.)					
	Adminis- trative	Super- visory	Mana- gerial	Teach- ing & Resea- rch	Clini- cal	Other Duties
1. Scientists	5 (25.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-
2. Doctors	7 (35.0)	-	-	-	20 (100.0)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	8 (40.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-
4. University Teachers	3 (15.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	-
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	13 (65.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	-	10 (50.0)	-	4 (20.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	-	-	3 (30.0)
9. Administrative, Exe- cutive and Manage- rial Workers	11 (55.0)	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	-	-	-
TOTAL	38 (22.4)	13 (7.6)	12 (7.1)	70 (41.2)	20 (11.8)	40 (23.5)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

scientists and 15 per cent of administrative and executive workers. The category of 'other duties' included all lawyers who were self-employed, 65 per cent of architects and engineers who had technical duties, 30 per cent of auditors and accountants who were into accounts and computer programming and 20 per cent of social scientists. Only 7.1 per cent of the respondents held managerial posts in which the highest representation was by auditors and accountants (40 per cent), followed by administrative and executive workers (30 per cent). Thus we observed that a relatively low proportion of the respondents were in administrative, supervisory and managerial posts.

VI.3.3 Working Hours : An analysis of the working hours of the respondents will help us get a deeper understanding of the nature of working conditions of these workers. From Table VI.16 we observe that 71.2 per cent of the respondents had fixed working hours. One reason for this is that a relatively higher proportion of the respondents are in government service, where working hours are fixed. One-fourth of the respondents had indefinite working hours and only 6 had late evening or

Table VI.16 : Distribution of Respondents According to Working Hours

Category				(Nos.)
	Fixed	Indefi- nite	Late evening & night Duties	Total
1. Scientists	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	12 (60.0)	6 (30.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	10 (100.0)	-	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	11 (55.0)	9 (45.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	121 (71.2)	43 (25.3)	6 ( 3.5)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

night duties. Within the categories we observed that barring all lawyers, 90 per cent of social scientists, 55 per cent of administrative and executive workers and 10 per cent of doctors, all other respondents had fixed working hours. All lawyers had indefinite working hours as they were self-employed, followed by 60 per cent of doctors who were either self-employed or working in hospitals where working hours are not fixed. Only doctors had to stay back for late evening and night duties. Thus the fixity of working hours is dependent upon the nature of job.

Turning to the analysis of specific hours of work (Table VI.17) we observe that 67.1 per cent of the respondents work for 5-8 hours per day or 39 hours a week.<sup>4</sup> A sizeable proportion of the respondents (25.9 per cent) work for 8-11 hours per day. Eight respondents have reported working for more than 11 hours per day. Except for 20 per cent of the university teachers, none of the respondents worked for less than 5 hours per day. All the degree college teachers and lawyers worked for 5-8 hours per day, as did a sizeable proportion of social

Table VI.17 : Distribution of Respondents According to Hours of Work

Category					(Nos.)
	Less than 5 hrs.	5 - 8 hours	8 - 11 hours	11 hours & more	Total
1. Scientists	-	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	7 (35.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (20.0)	14 (70.0)	2 (10.0)	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	12 (60.0)	8 (40.0)	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	-	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	4 ( 2.4)	114 (67.1)	44 (25.9)	8 ( 4.7)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



scientists, administrative and executive workers and university teachers. All the scientists and a relatively greater proportion of architects and engineers and auditors and accountants (40 per cent for both) worked for 8-11 hours. 35 per cent of doctors and one social scientist worked for 11 hours and more per day. Here again we find that working hours are dependent upon the nature of duties of the respondents.

VI.3.4 Types of Allowances and Facilities Paid to the Respondents : Besides working hours and salary paid, workers expect to receive other benefits and facilities from their employers. It would be interesting and important to determine what benefits and allowances are available to women professional workers. Our sample (Table VI.13) observes that the respondents get a large variety of benefits and allowances. 61.7 per cent of the respondents get house rent allowance, 41.8 per cent get city compensatory allowance, 35.5 per cent get medical allowance and 34.8 per cent get leave travel allowance. It is important to mention here that all the respondents, barring self-employed professionals get maternity leave with pay. Besides, 15.6 per cent of the respondents get bonus and 13.5 per cent get other allowances like vehicle executive, conveyance and non practicing allowances and children's fee concessions.

Table VI.18 : Distribution of Respondents According to Different Types of Allowances and Facilities Paid to Them

Category	House Allowance	Rent Allowance	City Compensatory Allowance	Leave Travel Allowance	Medical Allowance	Bonus	Other Allowances	Nos.)
1. Scientists.	20 (100.0)		18 (90.0)	17 (85.0)	17 (85.0)	-	-	-
2. Doctors	4 (33.3)		6 (50.0)	-	-	-	8 (66.7)	8
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (35.0)		-	-	-	-	-	-
4. University Teachers	18 (90.0)		-	-	-	-	-	-
5. Lawyers*	NA		NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	8 (40.0)		9 (45.0)	8 (40.0)	9 (45.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	3
7. Social Scientists	11 (55.0)		13 (65.0)	9 (45.0)	7 (35.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	3
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	4 (44.4)		3 (33.3)	6 (66.7)	8 (88.9)	4 (44.4)	3 (33.3)	3
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	15 (75.0)		10 (50.0)	9 (45.0)	9 (45.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	2
TOTAL	87 (61.7)		59 (41.8)	49 (34.8)	50 (35.5)	22 (15.6)	19 (13.5)	19

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total salaried respondents in that category.

\* Lawyers are self-employed and are thus not included in this analysis.

All the scientists, 90 per cent of university teachers (all are entitled to house rent allowance but some do not get it as their husbands are getting the same), and 75 per cent of administrative and executive workers get house rent allowance. Whereas, a relatively lower proportion of doctors, degree college teachers (for the same reason as university teachers), auditors and accountants and social scientists get the same allowance. It was observed that degree college and university teachers did not get any other allowance except house rent allowance, whereas, in other professions, respondents received almost all the allowances and facilities mentioned above. Bonus was received by architects and engineers, social scientists, auditors and accountants and administrative and executive workers but not by any of the other respondents. 85 per cent and more of the scientists received the four basic allowances. Here again we observe that allowances and facilities offered to the respondents are dependent on the nature of the organisation and type of profession.

VI.3.5 Retirement Benefits : Our survey reveals that all the respondents (barring self-employed professionals) received some kind of retirement benefits.

Table VI.19 : Distribution of Respondents According to Retirement Benefits Given to Them

Category	(Nos.)			
	Provident Fund	Retirement Gratuity	Pension	Other Benefits
1. Scientists	13 (65.0)	10 (50.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-
2. Doctors	12 (100.0)	2 (16.7)	10 (83.3)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	18 (90.0)	-	14 (70.0)	-
4. University Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)	-
5. Lawyers*	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	18 (90.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)
7. Social Scientists	15 (75.0)	9 (45.0)	9 (45.0)	-
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (88.9)	3 (33.3)	-	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	19 (95.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	-
TOTAL	123 (87.2)	34 (24.1)	61 (43.3)	4 ( 2.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total salaried respondents in that category.

\* All lawyers are self-employed and have thus been excluded from this analysis.

Table VI.19 focuses on this issue. A majority of the respondents (87.2 per cent) get provident fund, 43.3 per cent get pension and 24.1 per cent get retirement gratuity. Four respondents belonging to one public sector organisation reported getting death relief fund. A relatively lower proportion of scientists get provident fund whereas a larger proportion of the same get retirement gratuity (50 per cent). They are followed by 45 per cent of social scientists and 35 per cent of administrative and executive workers, whereas, none of the degree college teachers received retirement gratuity. All the university teachers and a significant proportion of doctors (33.3 per cent) and degree college teachers (70 per cent) had the benefit of pension. On the other hand none of the auditors and accountants and very few scientists (5 per cent) and architects and engineers (15 per cent) had this benefit.

#### VI.3.6 Number of Leaves Availed by the Respondents :

One of the major causes of employer's bias against women workers is that women take too many leave. Our survey shows that the average number of leaves per respondent in the past year is 27 days only (Table VI.20), which is



Table VI. 20 : Average Number of Leaves Aailed in the Past Year (in days) \*

Category	Casual Leave	Long Leave	Medical Leave	Average Days of Leave per Respondent
1. Scientists	12 (19)	29 (8)	10 (1 )	23
2. Doctors	11 (12)	55 (3)	34 (3)	33
3. Degree College Teachers	10 (19)	35 (3)	10 (5)	17
4. University Teachers	11 (18)	43 (3)	14 (2)	17
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	12 (18)	36 (11)	33 (4)	37
7. Social Scientists	12 (14)	28 (9)	30 (9)	34
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	12 (7)	26 (3)	10 (6)	24
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	13 (18)	21 (8)	16 (9)	27
TOTAL	13 (107)	32 (48)	20 (39)	27

Note :\*(1) Averages have been calculated according to total respondents availing of that particular leave.

(2) Figures in parentheses denote total respondents availing the particular leave.



contrary to the general idea that females take too many leaves. The average days of leave per respondent was relatively lower for university and degree college teachers (17 days), the reason being that colleges and universities have more holidays along with close down for summer vacations, thus additional leave is not required. For architects and engineers, social scientists and doctors the average days of leave per respondent is relatively higher (more than 30 days).

The data show that 75 per cent of the salaried respondents have availed their casual leave (an average of 13 days), however, 40 per cent of social scientists and one-third of auditors and accountants did not take any casual leave in the past year. 34 per cent of salaried respondents availed on average 32 days of long leave. The highest number of days of long leave was taken by doctors (55 days) followed by university teachers (43 days). It may be noted here that the largest number of architects and engineers (11) followed by social scientists (9) took long leave. An average of 20 days of medical leave was taken by 27.7 per cent of the respondents. In this, the highest average number of days

was for doctors (34 days) followed by architects and engineers (33 days) and social scientists (30 days). 45 per cent of social scientists and administrative and executive workers took medical leave, whereas, only one scientist, two university teachers and three degree college teachers took medical leave in the past year. We may, therefore, assert that the respondents did not take too many leaves thus breaking the myth that female workers are irregular at work.

VI.3.7 Distance from Home to Office : Table VI.21 shows that a little more than one-fourth of the respondents stay within three kilometres of their office, one-third have to travel between 3-6 kilometres to reach their office. The distance is between 6-9 kilometres for 22.9 per cent of the respondents, and 15.9 per cent travel more than 9 kilometres to reach their workplace. There is an over-representation of degree college and university teachers and doctors in the category 'less than 3 kilometres' because quite a few of the teachers are staying in the campus of the institution where they are working and eight of the doctors are doing private practice at home. A relatively higher proportion of university teachers (55 per cent), lawyers and auditors

Table VI.21 : Distribution of Respondents According to Distance From Home to Office

Category	(Nos.)				
	Less than 3 Kms.	3 - 6 Kms.	6 - 9 Kms.	9 - 12 Kms.	12 Kms. and more
1. Scientists	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)
2. Doctors	10 (50.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	-
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	11 (55.0)	-	1 (5.0)	-
5. Lawyers	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	5 (25.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)
7. Social Scientists	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	4 (40.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	-
TOTAL	47 (27.6)	57 (33.5)	39 (22.0)	20 (11.0)	7 (4.1)
					170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



and accountants (both 60 per cent) travelled between 3-6 kilometres to reach their workplace. One-fourth of social scientists travelled for more than 9 kilometres to reach their office. We thus observe that a relatively higher proportion of respondents stay close to their workplace. However, distance does not deter them from working as some respondents travel for more than 12 kilometres to reach their office.

VI.3.8 Time Taken to Reach Office : As shown by Table VI.22 47.6 per cent of the respondents took less than 20 minutes to reach their workplace as a relatively greater proportion of them stay close to their workplace. 41.8 per cent of the respondents took between 20-40 minutes to reach office and only 10.6 per cent of respondents took more than 40 minutes to reach office. A relatively larger proportion of doctors and teachers took less than 20 minutes to reach their workplace for similar reasons mentioned above. A significantly larger proportion of lawyers and administrative and executive workers took 20-40 minutes to reach office. One-fourth of social scientists took more than 40 minutes to reach office which

Table VI.22 : Distribution of Respondents According to Time Taken to Reach Office

Category					(Nos.)
	Less than 20 Minutes	20 - 40 Minutes	40 - 60 Minutes	60 Minu- tes & more	Total
1. Scientists	9 (45.0)	10 (50.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	10 (50.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	11 (55.0)	9 (45.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	5 (25.0)	13 (65.0)	-	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	11 (55.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	4 (40.0)	5 (50.0)	-	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	6 (30.0)	13 (65.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	81 (47.6)	71 (41.8)	8 ( 4.7)	10 ( 5.9)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

is in consonance with the fact that a relatively larger proportion of them stay farther away from their workplace as mentioned above. Therefore, time taken by respondents to reach their office is relatively low and is obviously dependent upon the distance from home to office.

VI.3.9 Mode of Transport : From Table VI.23 we observe that the most popular mode of transport for the respondents is a rickshaw (31.8 per cent travel by it), followed by scooter/two wheeler (20 per cent), tempo (17.6 per cent) and car (15.9 per cent). Use of public transport is extremely low. A relatively higher proportion of university teachers and doctors travel by car which is in consonance with the fact that they belong to the more affluent group of workers, specially doctors, as observed in Chapter V. Scooter/other two wheelers are used by one-third of architects and engineers, administrative and executive workers, and auditors and accountants. 50 per cent of lawyers and teachers travel by rickshaw to their workplace and a relatively higher proportion of auditors and accountants, architects and engineers and administrative and managerial workers go to office on a tempo. 40 per cent of doctors walk to



Table VI.23 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Mode of Transport to Office

Category	(Nos.)					
	Car	Scooter/ Two Wheeler	Rickshaw	Public Transport	Walking	Tempo
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)
2. Doctors	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	8 (40.0)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	10 (50.0)	-	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)
4. University Teachers	5 (25.0)	1 ( 5.0)	10 (50.0)	-	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)
5. Lawyers	-	3 (15.0)	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	-	4 (20.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	3 (15.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	-	-	6 (30.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	-	-	4 (40.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	-	-	5 (25.0)
TOTAL	27 (15.9)	34 (20.0)	54 (31.8)	9 ( 5.3)	16 ( 9.4)	30 (17.6)
						170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

their workplace as they are doing private practice at home. A relatively higher proportion of scientists and lawyers utilise public transport to go to their workplace. Thus, mode of transport used by the respondents is in accordance with their economic status and distance from home to office.

#### VI.4 Participation in Employees Union Activities

It has been observed that participation of women in trade/employees union is almost negligible. Since 1960 female membership in trade unions in Uttar Pradesh is not more than 1.5 per cent of total membership (Annual Report, Registrar Trade Unions, 1975). Studies in the West show that a large proportion of employed women work in non-unionised professions and female membership in unions is low (Wallace, 1982). It would, therefore, be interesting to observe the extent of participation of the respondents, in our sample, in union activities. We will also analyse the reasons why they do not participate in union activities.

VI.4.1 Membership in Unions : An important fact to be noted here is that almost all the institutions covered in the survey had a union, only a few private companies

did not have an employees union. We observed from Table VI.24 that only 41.2 per cent of the respondents were members of union. However, it may be observed that the level of unionisation of these workers is significantly higher than among women workers in U.P. in general as has been observed earlier. We observed that the extent of unionisation was relatively extremely low in the case of architects and engineers, auditors and accountants (both 10 per cent) and scientists (15 per cent). One reason for low membership of respondents in the two formal categories may be that in these occupations a few of the respondents were from private organisations where there was no union. 70 per cent of the doctors and 65 per cent of degree college teachers were members of unions, as were 50 per cent of university teachers and social scientists.

During our survey we had also enquired whether any of the respondents who were members of unions held any post in its executive body. Since unions have a considerable role to play in influencing the organisation and structure of work, the role of women in them is of great importance in enhancing their status in the workplace. We observed that eight respondents held executive posts.

Table VI.24 : Distribution of Respondents According to Membership in Employees Unions

Category	Respondents who are Members	Respondents who are not Members	Total
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	14 (70.0)	6 (30.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	13 (65.0)	7 (35.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	10 (50.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	9 (45.0)	11 (55.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	18 (90.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	10 (50.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (5.0)	9 (45.0)	10 (50.0)
9. Administrative, Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	8 (40.0)	12 (60.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	70 (41.2)	100 (58.8)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Four of them were degree college teachers from girls colleges with a predominantly female set-up. Two were doctors and both were in the executive of unions that were male-dominated and one was a scientist in a similar set-up. In short, we find that women's enrolment in unions is low and a negligible proportion of them are sharing administrative responsibilities in them.

#### VI.4.2 Extent of Participation in Union Activities :

Of the total respondents who are members of unions, 41.4 per cent have a casual involvement in union activities, 20 per cent are regular participants and as many as 38.6 per cent do not participate in them at all (Table VI.25).<sup>5</sup>

A high proportion of university teachers, doctors and administrative and executive workers did not participate at all in union activities. However, a relatively high proportion of degree college teachers and one-third of scientists and administrative and executive workers who were members of unions participated regularly in union activities.

We had also enquired whether the respondents participated in demonstration and strikes. We observed that

Table VI.25 : Distribution of Respondents According to Extent of Participation in Employees Union Activities

Category	(Nos.)			
	Not at all	Casual	Regular	Total
1. Scientists	-	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)
2. Doctors	10 (71.4)	3 (21.4)	1 (7.1)	14 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	1 (7.7)	6 (46.2)	6 (46.2)	13 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)	-	10 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	3 (33.3)	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	9 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	2 (100.0)	-	2 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3 (30.0)	6 (60.0)	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (50.0)	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)	8 (100.0)
TOTAL	27 (38.6)	29 (41.4)	14 (20.0)	70 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



all the regular participants had taken part in demonstrations and strikes. It was also noted that some of the respondents who did not participate regularly in union activities had also taken part in some demonstrations and strikes, but they did so only because it was compulsory for all the workers to go on strike in these cases. The overall conclusion is that the respondents are not actively involved in the unions of their organisations.

#### VI.4.3 Reasons for Non-Participation in Union

Activities : As a large proportion of respondents did not participate in union activities we enquired into the reasons for non-participation. The findings are shown in Table VI.26. It is interesting to observe that 51.2 per cent of the respondents did not participate in union activities because they did not have time off from office work, 17.6 per cent felt that unions were indifferent to womens problems and 16.5 per cent of the respondents non-participation was because of family disapproval. Only six respondents did not participate because of the traditional concept that women should not participate in union activities. 21.8 per cent of the respondents

Table VI.26 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons for Non-Participation in Union Activities

Category	General Trend that women should not participate in Union Activities	Unions are Indifferent to Women's Problems	Do not have time off from Office Work	Family Does not Approve of it	Other Reasons
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	13 (65.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)
2. Doctors	-	3 (15.0)	14 (70.0)	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	-	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)
4. University Teachers	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	8 (40.0)
5. Lawyers	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	2 (10.0)	15 (75.0)	1 ( 5.0)	6 (30.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	6 (60.0)	3 (30.0)	4 (40.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	5 (25.0)	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)
TOTAL	6 ( 3.5)	30 (17.6)	87 (51.2)	28 (16.5)	37 (21.8)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

mentioned 'other reasons' for non-participation and in a few of these cases the unions in their organisations were not active. In some cases the organisations where they worked had no unions at all. But a majority of these respondents felt that there was no need to join the union because they felt that the unions were not effective in improving remunerations and working conditions. A few respondents also mentioned that they did not have any spare time from domestic and office duties to be involved in union activities.

We observed that a large proportion of doctors (70 per cent), scientists (65 per cent), auditors and accountants (60 per cent) were too busy with office work to participate in union activities. Family approval seemed to play a relatively higher role for auditors and accountants and lawyers (both 30 per cent). The 'other reasons' mentioned above were cited in a relatively greater proportion by university teachers, auditors and accountants and architects and engineers. The above analysis corroborates our hypothesis that the level of unionisation of the respondents is considerably low.

## VI.5 Conclusions

In this chapter we have analysed the factors motivating respondents to work and their working conditions. We observed that a majority of the respondents took up professional training for academic interest and personality development. However, a significant proportion also reported desire to pursue a job showing thereby that self-motivation plays a more important role in this issue. A similar conclusion was drawn while discussing motivating factors to take-up a job. Here career ambitions and economic factors played an important role for the respondents. We observed that though inspiration from family members (mostly fathers) played a significant role for the respondents in choice of profession, a large number of respondents were new entrants to the labourforce, reaffirming that self-motivation rather than parental pressure is the predominant motivating factor.

Factors influencing job preferences for the respondents were in consonance with our hypotheses, i.e., level of earnings and non-transferability were the major factors and attitude of husband/father and social security benefits were significant factors guiding choice of job.

Analysis of the occupational history of the respondents concluded that age at joining work for the respondents was dependent on the minimum training period required in the profession and respondents in non-traditional occupations entered the workforce at a lower age than those in traditional occupations. The average duration of service was 10.8 years and we observed that respondents in traditional occupations had a longer length of service than those in non-traditional professions.

Only one-fourth of the respondents had changed jobs, the major reason being better prospects signifying thus that the respondents were career oriented. Advertisements were the source of information and recruitment for a majority of the respondents. The period of frictional unemployment for the respondents was fairly low implying that the labour market situation is favourable to them. Only respondents in the traditional occupations reported interruptions in career mostly for child bearing and rearing. These respondents also belonged to a higher age-group. Thus, career orientation was stronger amongst younger women.



Turning to the working conditions of the respondents we observed that a majority of the respondents were in government service. The respondents are working in a male-dominated environment both in terms of the organisation and the department where they work, the incidence being higher in respondents from non-traditional professions. Most of the respondents were engaged in teaching and research and a relatively lower proportion held administrative or supervisory posts. Working hours of the respondents were dependent upon the nature of their job. Doctors and lawyers had indefinite working hours and had to do late evening and night duties, whereas almost all the respondents in the other professions had fixed hours, with a majority of the respondents working for 5-8 hours per day.

Most of the respondents received the basic allowances like house rent, city compensatory allowance, medical and leave travel allowance. Some differences observed were because of the nature of the organisation where they worked and type of profession. All the respondents, barring self-employed professionals got some form of retirement benefit. Contrary to the general idea, respondents in our sample availed of less than a



month of leave in the past year. Generally the respondents workplace was close to her home and mode of transport was by rickshaw, any other mode of transport was dependent upon the respondents economic status.

We observed that level of unionisation amongst the respondents was low and a negligible proportion held administrative post in the union. The major reason for non-participation was that they did not have time off from office work. This corroborates with our hypothesis that extent of participation in union activities is expected to be low for professional women workers.

Summing up we may say that the respondents are self-motivated and are guided by career ambitions and economic factors to take up a job signifying the decreased role of parental pressure. They prefer to remain in an organisation and establish themselves there instead of job hopping. The length of frictional unemployment is low showing thereby that the labour market is favourable to them. Career-orientation is stronger amongst women in non-traditional occupations compared to those in traditional professions. Also the proportion of women in non-traditional occupations is much lower than in traditional occupations, though all of them still work in a male-dominated environment. The dual burden of office and domestic duties leave them with little time to participate in union activities, thus their level of unionisation is low.

## NOTES

1. The number of female urban workers in the professional cadres has increased to 74,274 in U.P. and 6,584 in Lucknow in 1981 from 44,534 in U.P. and 4,540 in Lucknow in 1971 (Census of India, 1981, Series 22, U.P., Part III A & B(viii) ).
2. Our study corroborates with Srivastava's (1978) study on educated married women, where 18.8 per cent of the upper class working women work for a better standard of living.
3. Census data reveals that almost 75 per cent of females in the category of professional, technical and related workers are in the teaching profession in Lucknow urban (Census of India, 1981, Series 22 U.P., Part III A & B(iii) ).
4. A study conducted on working women in Germany observed that the average working hours per week for women is 33.33 hours (Clasen, 1981). Another study (of women in the electronic industry in Pune) observes that the respondents work for 10-12 hours per day (Ramanna and Bambawale, 1987).
5. A study of women workers in Kanpur observed that 62 per cent of the respondents did not participate at all in union activities, 17.5 per cent participated moderately and 20.5 per cent had a high participation rate, which is in consonance with our sample also (Sharan, 1985).

## CHAPTER VII

Discrimination and Job SatisfactionVII.0 Introduction

Discrimination against females in the labour market is a widely prevalent global phenomenon. However, rapid industrialisation, urbanisation and increased educational opportunities have led to a significant change in the socio-cultural framework. As a consequence of this in all developed countries and in a considerable number of developing countries governments have passed legislation recognising the equality of men and women. It has, however, been observed in western countries (Davidson and Cooper, 1984; Seidman, 1978; Schmid and Weitzel, 1984; Wallace, 1982; etc.) and also in countries like India (Husain and Rao, 1979; Lalitha Devi, 1982; Gangrade and Gathia, 1983; Balasubramanyam, 1985; Ramanna, 1987; Jain, 1988; etc.), that these equal opportunity legislations have not been adhered to in totality.

Chiplin and Sloane (1976, p.51) have defined 'pure' labour market discrimination on the part of the employer as 'any form of unequal treatment between male and female

employees which does not directly result in cost-minimisation in monetary terms, in relation with labour utilisation'. Discrimination is either overt or institutionalised (Marshall, 1974). One manifestation of overt discrimination is wage discrimination where equally productive male and female workers in the same job are paid different wages on the basis of difference in gender. Another type is employment discrimination in which women are generally clustered in a few occupations, also termed sex-segregation in the labour market. Other forms of discrimination are pre-entry and post-entry discrimination. The former is in operation before the worker enters the labour force and can be measured by restricted educational and employment opportunities (Ashenfelter and Rees, 1973). The latter occurs in the workplace in terms of attitude of male workers, promotional restrictions, duties assigned to women, harassment from male workers and the general work atmosphere. Discrimination can also be enforced by employees and trade unions because of male conservative attitudes and also because female workers may be perceived as a threat to job and income by males. All these factors reflect institutionalised discrimination which exists in the socio-cultural framework of society.

One of the objectives of our study is to gauge the intensity of sex-discrimination at various levels, i.e. recruitment, promotions or in performance of duty. The present chapter analyses the extent of both pre and post entry discrimination and wage discrimination faced by the respondents. Various parameters have been taken up to perceive the extent of discrimination like employers bias, work environment, inter-action with and harassment from male colleagues, attitude of superiors and subordinates, equality in wages, etc. Besides discussing the extent of discrimination, this chapter also focuses on the level of job satisfaction of the respondents in terms of remunerations, promotions, suitable working hours, etc.

#### VII.1 Discrimination at the Time of Recruitment

Often discrimination starts at the time of recruitment because of employers bias. A study of women professionals in the U.S. has observed that women are simply overlooked in the selection of the personnel despite the fact that they were equally qualified as the male applicants (Seidman, 1978). In our sample only six respondents reported discrimination at the time of recruitment because



of their gender. Two of the respondents who reported discrimination (a scientist and a doctor) had specialised in fields that were male dominated, hence they faced 'resistance' during the selection procedure purely because they were women. One architect and one auditor said that they felt 'resentment' from the interviewers for the same reason as mentioned above. One of them also suggested that there should be a woman on the panel of interviewers while interviewing a female, for a more 'balanced' selection. One social scientist faced major problems at the time of recruitment because her work involved going to rural areas for field work and the employer expressed severe reservations against employing her as he would have to provide 'special facilities' to the respondent while on field work, e.g., separate room, etc. One I.A.S. Officer reporting discrimination said that the panel of interviewers felt that women are unable to cope with domestic and official duties and they are unable to take up the challenges of an administrative job. On the whole, we conclude, that though male bias was observed at the time of recruitment in some cases, it was not reflected in the selection of the respondents.



## VII.2 Employers Bias

Even though there was no discrimination at the time of recruitment for the respondents in general, in actual performance of duty 24.7 per cent reported employer's bias (Table VII.1). A significantly high proportion of administrative and executive workers (65 per cent) felt that employers were biased against females. They were followed by 40 per cent of university teachers, 35 per cent of architects and engineers and 30 per cent of auditors and accountants. None of the degree college teachers reported bias as they were working in girls colleges. Also no lawyer reported bias as they were self-employed. A fairly low proportion of doctors (10 per cent) reported bias as a few of the respondents were working in women's hospitals, some were in female-dominated departments and eight of the respondents were self-employed. Thus existence of bias was related with the type of job the respondents had.

Table VII.1 also focuses on the major reasons for employer's bias against women workers. Maximum number of respondents reported that bias was due to the employers conservative attitude. This indicates that in the

Table VII.1 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons for Employers Bias Against Women Workers

Category	Total Respondents Reporting Bias of Employer	Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons of Employer's Bias									
		Employers Oppressive Attitude	Women are irregular at work	They are unable to cope with changing work	Women have to give special benefits	They are unable to handle jobs with High De	Separate Recreation & toilet facilities	Facilities not provided			
1. Scientists	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	-	2 (10.0)	-		2 (10.0)	-	
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	-		-	-	
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)	-	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	-		1 (5.0)	-	
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		NA	NA	
6. Architects and Engineers	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	6 (30.0)	-	1 (5.0)		1 (5.0)	-	
7. Social Scientists	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	1 (5.0)	3 (15.0)	-	1 (5.0)		1 (5.0)	-	
8. Auditors, Accountants, and Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	-	2 (20.0)	-	-		-	-	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	13 (65.0)	12 (60.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	-		4 (20.0)	-	
TOTAL	42 (24.7)	38 (22.4)	19 (11.2)	8 (4.7)	16 (9.4)	7 (4.1)	2 (1.2)		7 (4.1)	2 (1.2)	

Note : (1) Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

(2) Self-employed professionals are not included in this analysis.

prevailing socio-cultural framework women are still not duly recognised as being part of the labour force. This reason was particularly relevant in the case of administrative and executive workers, university teachers, architects and engineers and auditors and accountants. Barring university teachers, the rest of the professions are predominantly male-dominated, as has been observed earlier. 11.2 per cent of the respondents felt that bias was because employers felt that women are irregular at work, particularly so in the case of administrative and executive workers and social scientists. It has been observed in the previous chapter that the respondents do not take excess leave, thus the bias of employers regarding irregularity of work by women seems baseless. 9.4 per cent of the respondents attributed employers bias to the fact that they felt that women have to be given special benefits. A relatively higher proportion of women in 'non-traditional' occupations reported this possibly because their employers are not used to the concept of special benefits and resulting extra cost. None of the scientists and doctors reported this bias as they are in 'traditional' professions. Only 4.7 per cent of the respondents said that employers feel that women are unable to handle demanding or strenuous

jobs. This bias was relatively higher for scientists, doctors and administrative and executive workers (10 per cent in each), as their nature of work is more demanding as compared to other professions. Seven respondents said that employers felt that women could not handle jobs with high decision-making qualities, and, a majority of these respondents were administrative and executive workers where the nature of job demands prompt decision-making.

The overall conclusion is that the incidence of respondents reporting employers bias is relatively high in professions where women workers are recent entrants to the workforce as compared to the traditional occupations.

### VII.3 Interaction with and Harassment from Male Colleagues

We had observed earlier that the respondents organisations and departments were male-dominated. Table VII.2 gives a more detailed analysis of the respondents co-workers. We observed that 45.7 per cent of the respondents had mostly male co-workers. 30.2 per cent of the respondents had a mixed group of co-workers. Only one-fourth of the respondents had mostly women co-workers and this comprised of all degree college teachers as they were working in girls

Table VII.2 : Distribution of Respondents According to Type of Co-Workers

Category	Mostly Women	Mostly Men	Mixed Group	Total
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	14 (70.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	6 (50.0)	3 (25.0)	3 (25.0)	12* (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	12 (60.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	-	20 (100.0)	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	10 (50.0)	8 (40.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3 (15.0)	9 (45.0)	8 (40.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	9 (90.0)	-	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1 ( 5.0)	15 (75.0)	4 (20.0)	(100.0)
TOTAL	39 (24.1)	74 (45.7)	49 (30.2)	162* (100.0)

\*The Reduced sample size is because eight doctors are private practitioners and are not included in the analysis.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.



colleges and also 50 per cent of doctors as they usually worked in female dominated departments. All the lawyers and 50 per cent and more of the respondents in non-traditional professions had mostly male co-workers. 70 per cent of scientists and 60 per cent of university teachers had a mixed group of co-workers. Thus, most of the respondents, particularly those in non-traditional sectors, had a male-dominated workplace.

The physical work environment is more closely studied in Table VII.3 where we observe that 47.6 per cent of the respondents share their room with both males and females, 31.2 per cent share their room with only women and 21.2 per cent had their own rooms/cabins. During the survey we observed that all the respondents sharing rooms with only women belonged to all female departments. In the rest of the departments respondents shared accommodation with males. We observed a relatively higher proportion of scientists (80 per cent), auditors and accountants (80 per cent), administrative and executive workers (70 per cent) and architects and engineers (65 per cent), where sharing their rooms with male co-workers. It has



Table VII.3 : Distribution of Respondents According to Pattern of Sharing Rooms with Women or a Mixed Group

Category	(Nos.)			
	Only Women	Mixed Group	Having Single Room	Total
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	6 (30.0)	4 (20.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	20 (100.0)	-	-	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	9 (45.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	9 (45.0)	11 (55.0)	-	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	11 (55.0)	7 (35.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	7 (35.0)	13 (65.0)	-	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	8 (80.0)	2 (20.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1 ( 5.0)	14 (70.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	53 (31.2)	81 (47.6)	36 (21.2)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

been observed earlier that in these professions the respondents had a higher proportion of male co-workers as compared to other professions.

The above analysis shows that a large proportion of the respondents are working in a male-dominated environment. After observing their physical work environment and male-female ratios, we now examine their level of interaction with their male colleagues. Table VII.4 shows that 43.5 per cent of the respondents have a fairly high level of interaction with their male colleagues, thus, signifying a change in the attitude of men regarding women workers. This attitudinal change is further strengthened by the fact that 15.9 per cent of the respondents had a high level of interaction with their male colleagues. On the other hand, we observed that 15.3 per cent of the respondents had low interaction and 6.5 per cent had no interaction at all with their male co-workers. This was significantly higher in the case of lawyers where a majority of respondents said that any interaction with male colleagues was looked upon with suspicion by the males, therefore, they avoided any contact with them. Another reason for low level of interaction may be that women lawyers are

Table VII.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Level of Interaction with Male Colleagues

Category	(Nos.)				Total
	No Inter-action	Low Inter-action	Fairly Good In-teraction	High Level of Inter-action	
1. Scientists	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	11 (55.0)	6 (30.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	-	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	-	8 (40.0)
3* Degree College Teachers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4. University Teachers	-	5 (25.0)	13 (65.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	2 (10.0)	13 (65.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Stasticians	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	7 (70.0)	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	1 ( 5.0)	9 (45.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	11 ( 6.5)	26 (15.3)	74 (43.5)	27 (15.9)	138 (81.2)

\* The respondents are girls college teachers thus they have no male colleagues.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

recent entrants into the profession thus male attitudes are still bound by age-old conventions. 40 per cent of social scientists also reported low or no interaction possibly for similar reasons. A significant proportion of auditors and accountants (70 per cent), university teachers, architects and engineers (both 65 per cent) and scientists (55 per cent), had a fairly high level of interaction with their male colleagues, and 50 per cent of administrative and executive workers, 30 per cent of scientists and 25 per cent of architects and engineers had a high level of interaction with their male colleagues. This implies that in all these professions there is a positive attitude of male colleagues regarding women workers. On the whole we assert that though respondents are working in a male-dominated environment, they have a fairly high level of interaction with their male colleagues.

Yet another parameter for determining the extent of discrimination and bias against women workers is the prevalence of harassment from male colleagues. In our sample we analysed four forms of possible harassment from male colleagues, viz. ridicule, 'ask you to stay back

unnecessarily after office hours', sexual innuendoes, 'treat you as inferior to them' (Table VII.5). These are all subtle forms of harassment and play an important role in determining the status of women workers in the eyes of their male co-workers. We observed that a significant proportion of the respondents reported no harassment in terms of ridicule, sexual innuendoes and having to stay back unnecessarily after office hours. However, a significantly higher proportion of the respondents felt that male colleagues treated them as inferior to them. The existence of sexual innuendoes, was not common.

Within the categories we observed that in terms of ridicule, sexual innuendoes and asking respondents to stay back unnecessarily after office hours, the extent of harassment is higher in case of respondents in non-traditional professions as compared to other respondents. However, barring auditors and accountants, university teachers and doctors, a relatively high proportion of all other respondents reported that male colleagues treated them as inferior to them. Here again we observe that lawyers face greater harassment from their male colleagues. Therefore, we conclude that though very few respondents



Table VII.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to Harassment from Male Colleagues

Category	Ridicule								(Nos.)
	As You to stay back unnecessarily after office hours								
	Never	Rarely	Often	Very Often	Never	Rarely	Often	Very Often	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1. Scientists	19 (95.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	
2. Doctors	8 (40.0)	-	-	-	8 (40.0)	-	-	-	
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
4. University Teachers	19 (95.0)	-	-	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)	-	-	-	
5. Lawyers	12 (60.0)	8 (40.0)	-	-	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	
6. Architects and Engineers	14 (70.0)	5 (25.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)	-	-	
7. Social Scientists	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	19 (95.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	-	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	10 (100.0)	-	-	-	9 (90.0)	-	-	1 (10.0)	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	-	-	18 (90.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	
TOTAL	117 (68.8)	17 (10.0)	3 ( 1.8)	1 ( 0.6)	128 (75.3)	7 ( 4.1)	1 ( 0.6)	2 ( 1.2)	

Contd...../-



Table VII.5 Contd.

Category	Sexual Innuendoes				Treat you as Inferior to Them			
	Never	Rarely	Often	Very Often	Never	Rarely	Often	Very Often
0	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Scientists	15 (75.0)	5 (25.0)	-	-	11 (55.0)	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	-
2. Doctors	7 (35.0)	1 (5.0)	-	-	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4. University Teachers	19 (95.0)	-	-	1 (5.0)	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	-
5. Lawyers	8 (40.0)	11 (55.0)	1 (5.0)	-	5 (25.0)	15 (75.0)	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	16 (80.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	-	9 (45.0)	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)
7. Social Scientists	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)	-	-	12 (60.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	-
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	9 (90.0)	-	-	1 (10.0)	9 (90.0)	-	1 (10.0)	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)	-	-	12 (60.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	-
TOTAL	107 (62.9)	27 (15.9)	2 (1.2)	2 (1.2)	79 (46.4)	36 (21.2)	22 (12.9)	1 (0.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

have reported harassment in the first three categories a relatively higher proportion of respondents are treated as inferior by their male colleagues. Thus we observe that the male conservative attitude towards women workers still persists though it manifests itself in only subtle forms of harassment.

#### VII.4 Attitude of Superiors and Subordinates

It is important here to discuss the attitude of male superiors towards women workers as this would have some affect on their entry into the work force. We had enquired into the respondents perception of the attitude of their male superiors. It has been observed earlier that some of the respondents had reported employer's bias mainly because of their conservative attitude towards female workers. Table VII.6, however, shows that 67.1 per cent of the respondents felt that their superiors treated them on an equal footing with their male counterparts. Whereas almost 29 per cent of the respondents reported some level of discrimination in the attitude of their superiors. We observed that 14.7 per cent of the respondents felt that their employers did not give them assignments with

Table VII.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Attitude of Superiors

Category	(Nos.)			
	Treat you on an Equal Footing with Male Counterparts	Feel You cannot Handle the job satisfactorily	Harass you by increasing work pressure	Do not give you assignments with major decision making
1. Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	2 (10.0)
2. Doctors	8 (40.0)	-	-	-
3. Degree College Teachers	NA	NA	NA	NA
4. University Teachers	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	-	3 (15.0)
5. Lawyers	4 (20.0)	10 (50.0)	-	6 (30.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	17 (85.0)	-	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)
7. Social Scientists	17 (85.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	9 (90.0)	-	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	14 (70.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	105 (61.7)	17 (10.0)	7 ( 4.1)	25 (14.7)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

major decision-making qualities only because of their gender. 10.0 per cent said that employers felt that they could not handle the job satisfactorily and only seven respondents reported harassment by employers in terms of increased work pressure.

It is interesting to note that besides doctors and lawyers, a significant proportion of respondents in all other categories reported that their superiors treated them at par with their male counterparts. This low proportion in doctors is explained by the fact that eight doctors were self-employed and some belonged to all female departments or female hospitals, therefore, the figure does not signify discriminatory attitude of superiors. On the other hand, we observe that lawyers are not accepted or treated on an equal footing with their male counterparts as 50 per cent of them said that their superiors felt they could not handle the job properly and 30 per cent reported that their superiors did not give them any complicated cases as they doubted the respondents abilities only because of gender.

The overall conclusion drawn is that discriminatory attitude and bias of superiors towards the respondents is more prevalent in the non-traditional professions where

women are recent entrants as compared to respondents in traditional professions.

We have observed earlier that there are perceptual changes amongst males regarding women workers in the professional cadres. Analysis of the attitude of male subordinates towards the respondents will throw more light on the issue. From Table VII.7 we observe that one-fourth of the respondents felt that their subordinates obeyed them, 20 per cent felt that their subordinates were indifferent about their sex and 12.9 per cent said that male subordinates respected them because of their sex. Only 10 per cent reported resentment against male subordinates because of their sex. The data, therefore, reveals that in a majority of cases female bosses are not discriminated against by male subordinates. In fact they accept female bosses despite their gender. The incidence of resentment is low.

Within the categories we observe that a relatively higher proportion of scientists and university teachers said that their subordinates obeyed them despite their sex. A significantly higher proportion of social scientists (40 per cent) felt that their subordinates respected



Table VII.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Attitude of Male Subordinates

Category	They Obey You	They Respect you because of your sex	They Resent you because of your sex	They are Indifferent about your Sex
1. Scientists	11 (55.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)
2. Doctors	4 (20.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	NA	NA	NA	NA
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	9 (45.0)
7. Social Scientists	5 (25.0)	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	6 (60.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)
TOTAL	44 (25.9)	22 (12.9)	17 (10.0)	34 (20.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.



them because of their sex. For a relatively large proportion of auditors and accountants, architects and engineers and university teachers, their male subordinates were indifferent about their sex. The incidence of resentment against female bosses by male subordinates was highest in the case of administrative and executive workers (35 per cent), followed by social scientists (20 per cent). It was observed that resentment of male subordinates was particularly low among respondents in traditional professions. On the whole the attitude of male subordinates was satisfactory as no overt discrimination was reported by most of the respondents.

#### VII.5 Decision-Making Powers

We have observed earlier that 14.7 per cent of the respondents said that their superiors did not give them assignments with major decision making qualities. Other studies have also shown that women are either not employed in jobs involving high decision-making abilities or they are not given appropriate decision-making powers (Murdoch, 1984). Our study, however, shows that 88.8 per cent of

the respondents felt that decision-making powers they had were in consonance with their designation (Table VII.8). This signifies that these workers did not experience discrimination and bias on this issue. This is further strengthened when we analyse the reasons why 11.2 per cent of the respondents reported that decision-making powers were not in consonance with their designation. A majority of these respondents said that this dissonance existed because of departmental politics, favouritism, nepotism and centralisation of power prevalent in the institutions where they worked. All these factors are mostly independent of gender bias. Only three respondents attributed low decision-making powers to the fact that their employers felt they would not be able to handle the responsibility or were not 'capable enough' simply because of their gender. We thus conclude that by and large the respondents felt that decision-making powers they had were in consonance with their designation.

#### VII.6 Prospects of Success or Failure

Besides discrimination from external forces very often women themselves feel at a disadvantage being in the

Table VII.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Opinion About Consonance Between Designation and Decision Making Power

Category	(Nos.)	
	Decision-Making Powers are in Consonance with Designation	Decision Making Powers Not in Consonance with Designation
1. Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)
2. Doctors	20 (100.0)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)
4. University Teachers	15 (75.0)	5 (25.0)
5. Lawyers	20 (100.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)
7. Social Scientists	15 (75.0)	5 (25.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (80.0)	2 (20.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)
TOTAL	151 (88.8)	19 (11.2)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

labour force. We may term this as a sort of an 'internalised discrimination' because of their gender. During the interview with the respondents we had asked them 'do you think women have to work harder to succeed in their profession' and if 'yes' then give the reasons for this. We observed that 60.6 per cent of the respondents felt that women did have to work harder to succeed in their profession (Table VII.9). This indicates that though these women have broken away from socio-cultural norms and entered male-dominated professions, they themselves feel they are not on an equal footing with their male counterparts. Here again we observe that a lower proportion of women in the traditional professions, viz. scientists, doctors and degree college teachers, felt they had to work harder to succeed. Though university teachers are also in a traditional occupation, half of them reported that they had to work harder as their work environment was relatively more male-dominated than in other traditional professionals.

Delving into the reasons why respondents felt they had to work harder to succeed in their profession, we observed that 46.5 per cent attributed it to the fact that women have to prove their worth in a male-dominated workplace, therefore, highlighting that they are fighting

Table VII.9 : Distribution of Respondents According to Reasons Why Women Have to Work Harder to Succeed in Their Profession

Category	Those who Feel Women Have to Work Harder to Succeed in Profession	Reasons			(Nos.)
		Have to prove their Worth in a Male-dominated Workplace	Dual Responsibility of Office and Domestic Work	Restrictions due to Gender	
1. Scientists	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	
2. Doctors	9 (45.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	-	
3. Degree College Teachers	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	-	
4. University Teachers	13 (65.0)	10 (50.0)	8 (40.0)	-	
5. Lawyers	15 (75.0)	15 (75.0)	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	
6. Architects and Engineers	15 (75.0)	11 (55.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	
7. Social Scientists	12 (60.0)	12 (60.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (80.0)	6 (60.0)	2 (20.0)	2 (20.0)	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	15 (75.0)	13 (65.0)	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)	
TOTAL	103 (60.6)	79 (46.5)	52 (30.6)	14 (8.2)	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.



against strong female stereotypes. A significantly higher proportion of lawyers, administrative and executive workers, social scientists and auditors and accountants expressed this thought that women have to prove wrong the general male attitude that women cannot manage professional jobs satisfactorily. 30.6 per cent of the respondents reported that women have to work harder because of the dual responsibility of domestic and office work. This shows that even for professional workers the basic female role of 'home maker' exists strongly. A relatively higher proportion of university teachers and administrative and executive workers gave importance to this dual responsibility, whereas, a relatively low proportion of scientists, lawyers and auditors and accountants expressed this reason. Restrictions due to gender was the reason for 8.2 per cent of the respondents who felt that women had to work harder to achieve success in their profession. This reason was stated mainly by respondents in the non-traditional professions and they mentioned reasons like 'have less exposure to field/site works', 'cannot entertain clients' and are not able to stay back late in office, etc.



VII.7 Consonance Between Professional Qualifications and Present Job

We had enquired into whether the respondents felt their professional qualifications were in consonance with their jobs. This will throw light on employment opportunities available for the respondents and whether there is under-employment amongst them. Table VII.10 shows that a vast majority of the respondents felt that their job was in consonance with their professional qualifications. Thus implying that ample employment opportunities are available to these workers. A relatively higher proportion of administrative and executive workers and architects and engineers, however, felt that their jobs were not in consonance with their academic qualifications. It has been observed earlier that women are recent entrants in these professions, it may therefore be possible that lower employment opportunities are available to them because of their gender, implying the existence of pre-entry discrimination in these professions. This fact was further reaffirmed when we analysed the reasons why nine respondents had taken jobs that were not in consonance with their professional qualifications. Five of them reported restricted employment opportunities for women as a reason for

Table VII.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Perception of Consonance Between Professional Qualifications and Suitability of Job

Category	(Nos.)	
	Job in Consonance with Professional Qualifications	Job not in Consonance with Professional Qualifications
1. Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)
2. Doctors	20 (100.0)	-
3. Degree College Teachers	20 (100.0)	-
4. University Teachers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)
5. Lawyers	20 (100.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)
7. Social Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	10 (100.0)	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	17 (85.0)	3 (15.0)
TOTAL	161 (94.7)	9 ( 5.3)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

taking up their present job. Three respondents said that they took up their present job because no other permanent job was available, highlighting the fact that job security was an important consideration while choosing a job. One respondent had some personal family problems so she had taken up the present job.

Overall we may assert that respondents took up jobs that were in consonance with their professional qualifications, ruling out underemployment and restricted job opportunities, even in the male-dominated professions, for the respondents.

### VII.3 Discrimination in Wages

Male - female earning differentials constitute one of the major overt parameters of discrimination. Almost all studies concerned with women workers have studied this issue and have concluded that average earning of females is lower than average earnings of males, even for similar occupations. Our study, however, concludes that there are no earning differentials as regards male and female workers. One reason behind this is that a majority of the respondents are in government service, where

obviously there are no differences in salary more so after the passing of the Equal Remuneration Act of 1976. We also observed that male-female earning differentials were not prevalent even among the few respondents from the private sector. However, a few of the lawyers reported the existence of discrimination in remunerations because of their gender. They reported that litigants were hesitant to come to women lawyers and therefore their male counterparts earned more because of their sex. Therefore, we conclude that though no blatant wage discrimination was prevalent, subtle discrimination existed only as regards self-employed professionals.

We had hypothesized that in the organised sector one does not expect discrimination regarding pay and working conditions between male and female workers. The entire analysis of the extent of discrimination and bias is in consonance with this hypothesis in general. Some particular cases of discrimination that have been reported are subtle forms of discrimination. Thus we conclude that overt and blatant forms of discrimination do not exist amongst the respondents in our sample.

### VII.9 Job Satisfaction

We have observed earlier that the respondents, in general, do not face any overt discrimination or bias from male workers. We now examine whether the respondents are themselves satisfied with their jobs. Job satisfaction is the positive outlook of the person towards his work. In

our study, we have examined job satisfaction along six parameters, viz., remunerations, chances of promotion, security of service, suitable working hours, provision of welfare measures and extent of decision making power. The respondents were asked to express their opinion regarding satisfaction on these parameters on a seven point scale where zero denoted absolute dissatisfaction and six denoted absolute satisfaction.

From Table VII.11 we observe that on the whole, in all the parameters taken regarding job satisfaction, the respondents are generally clustered towards points 4, 5 and 6 on the seven point scale. This denotes that by and large the respondents are highly <sup>satisfied</sup> with their jobs regarding these parameters.



Table VII.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to Extent of Job Satisfaction

Factors Determining Job Satisfaction	Extent of Satisfaction on a Seven Point Scale*							(Nos.)
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1. Remunerations	1 (0.6)	14 ( 8.2)	18 (10.6)	32 (18.8)	38 (22.4)	32 (18.8)	35 (20.6)	
2. Chances of Promotion	1 (0.6)	24 (14.1)	13 ( 7.6)	46 (27.1)	24 (14.1)	11 ( 6.5)	22 (12.9)	
3. Security of Service	2 (1.2)	33 (19.4)	5 ( 2.9)	19 (11.2)	18 (10.6)	29 (17.1)	64 (37.6)	
4. Suitable Working Hours	-	12 ( 7.1)	5 ( 2.9)	24 (14.1)	40 (23.5)	35 (20.6)	54 (31.8)	
5. Provision of Welfare Measures	2 ( 1.2)	39 (22.9)	16 ( 9.4)	35 (20.6)	22 (12.9)	11 ( 6.5)	17 (10.0)	
6. Extent of Decision-Making Power	-	12 ( 7.1)	18 (10.6)	40 (23.5)	35 (20.6)	20 (11.8)	45 (26.5)	

\* Where 0 is totally dissatisfied and 6 is absolutely satisfied.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.



Taking up each factor separately, we observe that, regarding remunerations 39.4 per cent of the respondents have reported a high level of, or absolute satisfaction (have placed themselves on points 5 and 6 of the scale). 29.4 per cent have placed themselves on points 3 and 4 of the scale denoting a moderate level of satisfaction and only 19.4 per cent of the respondents have a low level of satisfaction as they have placed themselves on points 0, 1 and 2 of the scale. Thus we conclude that a majority of the respondents are either moderately or highly satisfied with their jobs as regards remunerations.

A slightly contrary picture emerges while analysing respondents satisfaction in terms of chances of promotion. Here the maximum number of respondents were on points 3 and 4 of the scale denoting a moderate level of satisfaction. 22.3 per cent of the respondents reported a low level of satisfaction (were on points 0, 1 and 2 of the scale). Only 19.4 per cent experienced a high level or absolute satisfaction. Thus relatively low level of satisfaction regarding promotional prospects exists because of some latent discrimination against female employees. It may be noted here that the total respondents reporting on this parameter is less than the total

sample size because self-employed professionals have not been included here.

With reference to security of service we observed that 54.7 per cent of the respondents were highly or absolutely satisfied on this parameter. The reason being that a majority of the respondents are either in government service or are in university and colleges where security of service is high. In some cases, however, it is not so as 23.5 per cent of the respondents reported a low level of satisfaction as they placed themselves on points 0, 1 and 2 of the scale and 21.8 per cent of respondents were moderately satisfied with their jobs regarding security of service. On the whole we may say that the respondents are moderately or highly satisfied with their jobs regarding security of service.

Another important parameter to be discussed is suitable working hours. Here again we observe that respondents are moderately or highly satisfied with their jobs regarding this factor. This is explained by the fact we had observed earlier that a majority of respondents had fixed working hours.

There is a relatively lower level of satisfaction regarding provision of welfare measures. Here the majority of respondents have expressed either a low level of satisfaction or moderate satisfaction. During the interview we had observed that quite a few of the respondents felt the need of a creche near the workplace and some had also wanted some official transport system. Thus, the employers have not fully taken account of separate facilities required by women workers.

We have observed earlier that a majority of the respondents felt that the decision-making powers they had were in consonance with their designation. Here also we observe that 26.5 per cent of the respondents are highly satisfied with the extent of decision-making power they have. 11.8 per cent have placed themselves on point 5 of the scale denoting a high level of satisfaction. 23.5 per cent and 20.6 per cent have placed themselves on points 3 and 4 respectively showing a moderate level of satisfaction. Only 17.7 per cent have expressed a low level of satisfaction regarding this parameter. None of the respondents were totally dissatisfied with the extent of decision-making power they have.

Overall we observe that the respondents are satisfied with their jobs in terms of the parameters studied. There is a higher level of satisfaction regarding remunerations, security of service, suitable working hours and extent of decision-making powers, whereas, respondents have reported a relatively lower level of satisfaction regarding chances of promotion and provision of welfare measures. Thus our findings are in consonance with our hypothesis that there is a high level of job satisfaction among these professional women workers.

#### VII.10 Conclusions

In this chapter we have carried out an in-depth analysis of the extent of discrimination and bias and the level of job satisfaction amongst the respondents. We observed that though a majority of respondents did not experience any discrimination at the time of recruitment, some did express a feeling of discrimination, specially those respondents who were entering male-dominated departments, thus implying that some level of subtle discrimination is prevalent at recruitment among these workers. This is further reaffirmed by the fact that

one-fourth of the respondents report employer's bias mainly because of employer's conservative attitude regarding women workers. This bias was more prevalent in professions where women are recent entrants to the work-force as compared to the traditional professions.

Our findings reveal that most of the respondents are working in a male-dominated work atmosphere as a maximum number of respondents had mostly male co-workers and shared their room with a mixed group, thus implying that women in these professions are entering into 'male' departments. A high proportion of respondents have a fairly high interactional level with their male colleagues signifying attitudinal change amongst male workers regarding women workers. An interesting conclusion drawn was that cases of overt harassment of respondents from male colleagues were very low as these workers belong to the affluent and highly educated section of the population. However, a fair proportion of the respondents said that male colleagues treated them as inferior because of their gender signifying that conservatism as regards women workers does exist in male co-workers.



Analysis of the attitude of male subordinates and superiors towards the respondents also shows that women have generally been accepted in these professions at an almost equal status as males, except for lawyers who did experience discrimination and bias on this issue as they are very recent entrants in the labour-force. Also other cases of discriminatory attitude reported were from non-traditional sectors. A majority of the respondents were satisfied with the decision-making powers that they had. We observed that these workers had ample employment opportunities as a majority of respondents said that their jobs were in consonance with their professional qualifications.

An important conclusion drawn from the survey was that a large proportion of respondents felt that women had to work harder to succeed in their profession mainly because they had to prove their worth in a male-dominated environment. This reflects the above mentioned fact that the respondents do experience subtle discrimination at the workplace. Contrary to various other studies on women workers, our study concludes that there are no male - female



earning differentials. Only lawyers reported some level of discrimination on this issue because of the conservative attitude of litigants regarding women lawyers.

We also observed that respondents had a high level of job satisfaction regarding remunerations, suitable working hours, security of service and extent of decision-making powers which is in consonance with our hypothesis. Respondents, however, reported a relatively lower level of satisfaction regarding chances of promotion, thus showing that some latent discrimination does exist against women workers. Low level of satisfaction was also reported regarding provision of welfare measures indicating thereby that employers have not taken care to meet the special needs of women workers.

Thus we conclude that by and large the respondents are at par with male workers because we are dealing with a socio-cultural group which is highly educated. Some conservatism, bias and feeling of superiority amongst male workers still persist, specially in non-traditional occupations. This is expected to change with time, as male workers in these professions will get used to the presence of women workers in non-traditional fields.

## CHAPTER VIII

Domestic Duties and StatusVIII.0 Introduction

The traditional family structure had a clear-cut sexual division of labour where the man provided the income to run the household and the woman was responsible for managing the household and looking after the children. Now that women have started entering the labour-force, this traditional division of labour has been affected. The working women (specially married women) are thus required to play a dual role - one as wives and mothers and the other as employees. This has lead to the need for a modification of household responsibilities towards a more egalitarian division of labour at home. At the same time this dual role burden has lead to role conflict (as a housewife and as a worker) amongst women workers. Various studies in the west as well as in India have highlighted this problem of adjustment between home and office work and the redistribution of domestic duties between husband and wife (Powell, 1963; Feinstein, 1979; Anker and Hein, 1986; Lapidus, 1988; Kapur, 1970; Srivastava, 1978; Talwar, 1984; etc).

Another important effect of women joining the work-force has been on the family power-structure. The women's income - even if considered 'secondary' - is imperative for running the household because of inflationary pressures. This has resulted in women coming to the forefront in decision-making for household requirements. Besides this, being in the labour force has made women more independent and confident of their individuality. Thus, they have also started taking active interest in non-monetary problems of the family. There is the emergence of a definite change in the status of women within the household.

In this chapter, we analyse all these facets of the respondents, specifically the impact of their being in employment on their status within the household. We have analysed the domestic duties of the respondent, the attitude of husband and other family members towards her job, the impact of her job on family behaviour and other important issues in the household.

### VIII.1 Domestic Duties

The respondents in our sample are either paid employees or self-employed professionals. 67 per cent have work for 5-8 hours per day and 30 per cent work for more than 8 hours per day. It is thus obvious that there will be some redistribution of duties and responsibilities within the household, specifically for married women. This section focuses upon the time taken, by the respondents, for domestic work, the extent of husband's help in domestic duties, dependence on hired help and care of children in respondents absence.

VIII.1.1 Time Taken for Domestic Work : It is obvious that as the respondents are whole-time workers, their participation in household tasks is low.<sup>1</sup> Table VIII.1 shows that the average hours spent by the respondents in daily domestic chores is 3.3 hours. This is in consonance with Srivastava's (1978) study of working women in Chandigarh city where she observes that upper class working women spend an average of 3.75 hours per day in household chores.<sup>2</sup> Our data reveals that respondents in traditional occupations spend more time in

Table VIII.1 : Average Hours Spent per Day in Domestic Work Per Respondent

Category	Cook- ing	Clean- ing the house	Teach- ing & care of chil- dren	Shop- ping	Total Hours of work	Being with the family
1. Scientists	2.1	0.7	1.2	0.3	4.2	3.5
2. Doctors	1.3	0.4	1.9	0.4	3.9	4.5
3. Degree College Teachers	1.9	0.6	0.6	0.4	3.4	5.0
4. University Teachers	2.0	0.7	1.0	0.4	4.1	4.3
5. Lawyers	1.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	2.0	3.7
6. Architects and Engineers	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.4	3.3	3.5
7. Social Scientists	1.6	0.7	0.7	0.4	3.3	4.1
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	0.9	0.7	2.0	0.6	2.5	3.8
9. Administrative, Execu- tive and Managerial Workers	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.3	2.5	4.3
TOTAL	1.5	0.5	0.9	0.4	3.3	4.1



domestic work - ranging from 3.4 hours per day for degree college teachers to 4.2 hours per day for scientists - than those in non-traditional occupations - from a low of 2 hours per day for lawyers to 3.3 hours for social scientists and architects and engineers. One reason for this difference may be that respondents in traditional occupations have a higher average age compared to those in non-traditional occupations and are thus more influenced by tradition to perform domestic chores themselves. Another reason for low participation rates in domestic work by women in non-traditional sectors may be attributed to the fact that a higher proportion of these respondents are unmarried and are thus not expected to cook or clean the house and obviously spend no time on teaching and care of children.

Observing the different facets of domestic chores we see that scientists and university teachers spend more time on cooking - 2 hours - whereas, auditors and accountants and administrative and executive workers spend a lower than average time on the same. Teaching and care of children is an important aspect as it typifies the traditional stereotype of women. Considering

that almost half the respondents have children below 10 years of age, the amount of time spent on teaching and care of children is fairly low, at an average of 0.9 hours. Auditors and accountants (2 hours) and doctors (1.9 hours) spend more than average time on teaching and care of children. Shopping for household requirements is a traditionally 'male' task, but in our sample we observed the emergence of a change as the respondents spend 0.4 hours per day in shopping. We may conclude that in our sample shopping ceases to be a purely 'male' task.

Another important aspect to be analysed is the amount of time the respondents devote to being with the family. Dhingra's study of professionally trained women workers in Delhi shows that the respondents are unable to spend adequate time with their family and thus feel that they are neglecting their 'primary' duty as home makers and mothers. Our study observes that the respondents spend an average of four hours per day with family members. Considering the fact that they are whole-time workers, the average time spent on being with the

family is fairly high. Degree college teachers (5 hours), doctors (4.5 hours) and university teachers (4.3 hours) spend a higher than average time on being with their family. The reason being that teachers do not spend their entire day in the colleges and universities and thus have more time to devote to domestic responsibilities. The figure is high for doctors as 40 per cent of them are self-employed and thus have more flexible timings than those in employment. During our survey we also observed that respondents did not have any discontent regarding time devoted to being with the family.

#### VIII.1.2 Extent of Husband's Help in Domestic

Duties : As a consequence of women entering the labour force, the husband's share in the division of labour at home increases. It has been observed that in the Third World and developing countries, husband's of working women take on very little of the household responsibilities (Anker and Hein, 1986). This situation improves considerably in nuclear families where hired help is not available and/or affordable. In western countries also the husband's share of domestic responsibilities increases

as wives enter the labour force (Blood and Hamblin, 1958; Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Pleck, 1985; Berk, 1985; Lewis and Cooper, 1988).<sup>3</sup> In our sample, we observed that the respondents' husbands do help them to some extent in all the duties analysed (Table VIII.2). This is a significant finding as we observe a change in the stereotype role of women being solely responsible for household duties. 83.3 per cent of the respondents get help from their husbands in shopping for household requirements as this was earlier regarded as a typically 'male task'.

Another significant observation is that 68.8 per cent of the respondents share the responsibility of looking after the children with their husbands which is traditionally a 'female task'. Interestingly 32.3 per cent and 43.8 per cent of respondents get help from their husbands in cooking and cleaning the house respectively. Almost 50 per cent of respondents' husbands extend their help in buying vegetables and 59.4 per cent of respondents reported that their husbands help them in teaching children. We therefore, observe that these professional workers are moving towards a more egalitarian redistribution of division of labour on the homefront with husbands participating actively in domestic responsibilities.

Table VIII.2: Distribution of Respondents According to Extent of Husband's Help in Domestic Duties

Category	Types of Domestic Activities in which Husbands Help						(Nos.)
	Looking after children	Cooking	Cleaning the house	Shopping for household requirement	Teaching children	Buying vegetables	
1. Scientists	12 (70.6)	8 (47.1)	8 (47.1)	16 (94.1)	11 (64.7)	11 (64.7)	
2. Doctors	12 (70.6)	4 (23.5)	4 (23.5)	12 (70.6)	7 (41.2)	4 (23.5)	
3. Degree College Teachers	8 (66.7)	8 (66.7)	8 (66.7)	12 (100.0)	7 (58.3)	8 (66.7)	
4. University Teachers	9 (60.0)	4 (26.7)	9 (60.0)	14 (93.3)	11 (73.3)	8 (53.3)	
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-	-	
6. Architects and Engineers	5 (41.7)	1 (8.3)	3 (25.0)	10 (83.3)	5 (41.7)	4 (33.3)	
7. Social Scientists	8 (88.9)	4 (44.4)	6 (66.7)	8 (88.9)	8 (88.9)	6 (66.7)	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	
9. Administrative, Executive and managerial Workers	9 (75.0)	1 (8.3)	3 (25.0)	7 (58.3)	7 (58.3)	5 (41.7)	
TOTAL	66 (68.8)	31 (32.3)	42 (43.8)	80 (83.3)	57 (59.4)	47 (49.0)	

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents living with their husbands in that category.

Within the categories we do observe certain discrepancies in job sharing of domestic duties between husband and wife. A much lower than average proportion of architects and engineers (41.7 per cent) get help from their husbands in looking after the children. The data reveals that a relatively lower proportion of architects and engineers, administrative and managerial workers and doctors get help from their husbands in 'female tasks' like cooking and cleaning the house. The same holds true for doctors and architects and engineers with reference to teaching children and buying vegetables. We may thus conclude that the lowest proportion of architects and engineers followed by doctors and administrative and executive workers get help from their husbands in household tasks. One reason for this could be that respondents in these categories depend more on hired help for these activities.

VIII.1.3 Hired Help : Women's employment in whole-time jobs leaves them with limited time to devote to household chores. Therefore, they shift the burden of domestic chores to hired help. In our sample, we have observed earlier that the respondents belong to the upper middle class strata and can thus afford hired help.<sup>4</sup> Table VIII.3



Table VIII, 3 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number of Servants They Have Hired

	Number of Servants Hired				Total Number of respondents who hire servants	Average Number of Servants per respondent
	1	2	3	More than 3		
1. Scientists	6 (30.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	17 (85.0)	1.7
2. Doctors	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)	2.2
3. Degree College Teachers	6 (30.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	16 (80.0)	1.8
4. University Teachers	6 (30.0)	11 (55.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	19 (95.0)	1.8
5. Lawyers	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)	-	-	13 (65.0)	0.9
6. Architects and Engineers	7 (35.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	14 (70.0)	1.2
7. Social Scientists	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	-	12 (60.0)	0.9
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	5 (50.0)	4 (40.0)	-	-	9 (90.0)	1.3
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	6 (30.0)	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)	-	19 (95.0)	1.9
TOTAL	59 (34.7)	53 (31.2)	17 (10.0)	10 (5.9)	139 (81.8)	1.5

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in category.

throws light upon the number of part-time servants hired by the respondents. Mostly different persons are hired for different types of household work. Almost 82 per cent of the respondents have hired help and only 18 per cent have to bear the entire burden of household work. This is in consonance with Srivastava's (1978) study of married working women in Chandigarh where 11.34 per cent of the respondents had no hired help in domestic chores. From the table we observe that a large proportion of the respondents (65.9 per cent) had either one or two servants for cleaning utensils, washing clothes, cleaning the house and cooking. 15.9 per cent of the respondents had three or more servants for the same tasks mentioned above.

The number of respondents hiring servants, is in accordance with the economic status of the respondents household. Thus, all doctors have hired help as we have observed in Chapter V that they are the most affluent category, and the lowest number of respondents having domestic help are social scientists (60 per cent) and lawyers (65 per cent) as they are the least affluent group of workers. The same linkage is observed in the average number of servants per respondent with doctors having the

highest average of 2.2 servants and lawyers and social scientists having an average of 0.9 servants per household.

Looking into the number of servants hired within the categories, we observed that this again was linked with the economic status of the respondent. Thus a larger than average proportion of doctors, administrative and executive workers, degree college and university teachers have more than one servant whereas the highest number of lawyers and social scientists (both 40 per cent) have one servant. It may be noted here that though auditors and accountants belong to a relatively more affluent strata, 50 per cent of them have one servant. We, therefore, conclude that a majority of these professional workers depend on hired help to reduce their burden of domestic chores and this is linked closely with the economic status of the respondents household.

VIII.1.4 child Care : One basic problem faced by working mothers is the care of their children during working hours. It has been observed that child-care in mothers absence is easier in Third World and developing countries than in the industrialised nations because domestic

help is cheaper in the former and also kin support is available in the extended family situation in these countries (Anker and Hein, 1986). In our study we observe that 95.6 per cent of the respondents have alternative arrangements for child-care in their absence in the form of husband, in-laws or other family members, servants and other arrangements which includes creches and day-care centres for children (Table VIII.4). The role of the husband in this duty is minimal (10 per cent) because they themselves are in employment. A majority of the respondents depend upon either in-laws and other family members (43.3 per cent) or servants (37.8 per cent) to look after their children during working hours. Almost 29 per cent of married respondents had their in-laws residing with them and they helped the respondent in looking after her children. Only 4 respondents left their children in day-care centres or creches. During the survey we observed dissatisfaction amongst respondents on the lack of day-care centres or creches for pre-school going children. This was particularly high in the case of purely nuclear families where children were left to servants in the respondents absence. The rest of the respondents had grown-up

Table VIII.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Arrangements for Looking After the Children in Their Absence

Category	(Nos.)				
	Husband	In-laws/other family members	Servants	Other Arrangements	Total
1. Scientists	-	7 (43.8)	6 (37.5)	2 (12.5)	15 ( 93.8)
2. Doctors	-	7 (41.2)	10 (58.8)	-	17 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (40.0)	2 (20.0)	4 (40.0)	-	10 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 ( 7.1)	7 (50.0)	3 (21.4)	-	11 ( 78.6)
5. Lawyers	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6. Architects and Engineers	1 (12.5)	5 (62.5)	2 (25.0)	-	8 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (20.0)	4 (40.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
8. Auditors, accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	-	2 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1 ( 7.7)	6 (46.2)	5 (38.5)	1 ( 7.7)	13 (100.0)
TOTAL	9 (10.0)	39 (43.3)	34 (37.8)	4 ( 4.4)	86 ( 95.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents with children in that category.

children and thus did not have to make any arrangements for looking after them in their absence.

A higher than average proportion of university teachers (50 per cent) architects and engineers (62.5 per cent) and auditors and accountants (50 per cent) relied upon in-laws and other family members for child-care, whereas a high proportion of doctors (58.8 per cent) depended upon servants to take care of their children. A relatively high proportion of degree college teachers (40 per cent) and social scientists (20 per cent) get help from their husbands for looking after the children in their absence. We may thus conclude that the responsibility of child-care in respondents absence, is left largely to the in-laws and other family member or servants.

#### VIII.2 Attitude of Family Members Towards Respondents Job

As women enter the work force there is obviously a marked change in their stereotype role as home makers. It thus becomes imperative to analyse how this changed role is perceived by the family members specially the older generation, i.e. parents and in-laws, as they are more bound by traditional roles, more so in the Indian



context. This will also have an effect on the adjustment of working women on the home front. This section analyses the attitude of family members towards the respondents job and also the types of jobs that family members would prefer for the respondent.

#### VIII.2.1 Attitude of Family Members Towards

Respondents Job : Table VIII.5 throws light upon the respondents assessment of the attitude of family members towards their jobs. The responses have been tabulated on a seven-point scale, and respondents have placed themselves from 0 i.e. absolute disapproval to 6 i.e. absolute approval. Considering that the idea of women working outside their home is fairly recent, it is interesting to note that, in general, the respondents do not experience any opposition regarding their job from their family members, i.e. husband, parents, in-laws and children. From the table we observe that 87.6 per cent of the respondents reported that their husbands have a high level of approval towards their jobs, as they have placed themselves on points 5 and 6 of the scale. Other studies have also shown that husbands of employed women have generally approved of their wife's jobs (Nye, 1963; Ross, 1961;

Table VIII.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to Attitude of Family Members Towards Their Job

Relationship with Respondents	Degree of Approval on a 7 Point Scale*						(Nos.)
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Husband	-	-	-	2 ( 2.1)	10 (10.3)	19 (19.6)	66 (68.0)
Parents	3 ( 1.9)	2 ( 1.2)	2 ( 1.2)	2 ( 1.2)	19 (11.8)	27 (16.8)	106 (65.8)
Parents-in-law	-	-	-	5 ( 5.6)	16 (18.0)	16 (18.0)	52 (58.4)
Children	2 ( 2.2)	2 ( 2.2)	1 ( 1.1)	12 (13.3)	15 (16.7)	16 (17.8)	42 (46.7)

\* Where 0 is total disapproval and 6 is absolute approval.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents having the persons mentioned in the specific categories.

Klein and Myrdal, 1956; Srivastava, 1978). A significant finding in our study is that none of the respondents reported disapproval or even a low level of approval of their husbands towards their jobs.

Even in the case of parents and in-laws, the respondents assessment of the extent of their disapproval was very low. 82.6 per cent and 76.4 per cent of the respondents reported that the attitude of their parents and in-laws was highly favourable towards their job. 13 per cent and 23.6 per cent of the respondents felt that there was a moderate level of approval from parents and in-laws respectively towards their job as they had placed themselves on points 3 and 4 of the scale. Only 4.3 per cent of respondents reported a low level of approval or absolute disapproval by parents regarding their jobs. None of the respondents reported a similar attitude regarding in-laws. We may conclude that parents and in-laws have by and large accepted the idea of working daughters and daughters-in-law.

Analysing the attitude of children, we observe that 64.5 per cent of the respondents reported a high level of approval of their children towards their jobs. 30 per cent

of the respondents felt that their children moderately approved of their job and only 5.5 per cent of respondents reported a low level of approval or absolute disapproval of the children towards their being in employment. Thus we see that the general notion among the working women that their children feel neglected because of their jobs, has been disproved in our study.

On the whole we conclude that the respondents have reported a positive support from their family members as regards their job, which is imperative for their adjustment between office and domestic life.

VIII.2.2 Types of Jobs that Family Members would Prefer for the Respondent : Table VIII.6 analyses the types of jobs that respondents feel their family members would prefer for them. We have taken responses regarding three types of jobs which would seem most attractive to family members as they would give the respondent more time to fulfil her traditional duties as wife and mother, viz. part-time, non-travelling and teaching jobs. Regarding preference between part-time/whole-time jobs, we observed that a larger proportion of respondents have reported that

Table VIII.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Types of Jobs that Family Members Would Prefer

Relationship with Respondents	(Nos.)		
	Types of Jobs Preferred		
	Part-time	Non-Travelling	Teaching
Husband	31 (32.0)	92 (94.8)	42 (43.3)
Parents	63 (39.1)	157 (97.5)	75 (46.6)
Parents-in-law	40 (44.9)	89 (100.0)	45 (50.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents having the persons in the specific categories.

their family members (i.e. husbands, parents and in-laws) would prefer them to have a whole-time job. This is surprising considering the fact that such a job would leave the respondent with much less time to devote to household responsibilities. However, 32 per cent of the respondents have reported that their husbands' would prefer them to be in part-time jobs. The same holds good for 39 per cent and 44.9 per cent of respondents in reference to their parents and in-laws respectively. Thus we observe a change in the perception of family members,

specially parents and in-laws towards women's employment, as traditionally, even if women's entrance into the labour force was accepted by them, there was a greater preference for part-time jobs.

However, traditional norms were adhered to regarding family members' preference for non-travelling jobs. A majority of the respondents felt that their husbands (94.8 per cent), parents (97.5 per cent) and in-laws (100 per cent), preferred them to have non-travelling jobs. Teaching is generally regarded as a 'female' occupation and this is reflected, to some extent, in our sample as 43.3 per cent of the respondents have reported that their husbands, parents (46.6 per cent) and in-laws (50.6 per cent), would prefer the respondents to be in this profession. Though here again we observe a shift in conventional thinking as a greater proportion of the family members approve of other professions for the respondents.

Thus we conclude that family members generally approve of the respondents present job and their preference for types of jobs are not guided by traditional norms to a large extent. This is a significant finding



as family members approval leads to the continuation of the respondents in their present jobs. It will also result in the minimisation of role conflict amongst these workers.

### VIII.3 Impact on Status in the Household

In this section, we analyse the impact of respondents' being in employment on their status within the household. With increased education and employment opportunities, women can now actively contribute to family income and also achieve independence and self-confidence. They are thus at par with their male counterparts. This will elicit certain changes in the traditional patriarchal family power structure as women became more actively involved in major decision-making in the family. Studies by Kligler (1954) and Heer (1958) have observed that working women take more active participation in domestic affairs. We also analyse the opinion of the respondents towards women in employment and the effect of their jobs on their personality development and self-fulfilment.

VIII.3.1 Effect on Important Domestic Issues : In the traditional patriarchal system, women had limited say in family matters. However, as they start entering the work force and contributing to family income, their influence on domestic issues increases. Table VIII.7 analyses the effect of respondents being in employment on monthly expenditure, purchase of durable goods and career and marriage of children. Taking up monthly expenditure, we observed that being in employment made some difference for 38.2 per cent of respondents and large difference for 31.2 per cent of respondents, in their say on this issue. This is so because respondents contribute actively to family income and hence have a definite say on the monthly expenditure pattern of their households. However, 30 per cent of respondents reported that their being in the labour force made no difference to their say on monthly expenditure. Within the categories we observed that a larger than average proportion of lawyers and architects and engineers reported no difference in their say in monthly expenditure. This may be attributed to the fact that the percentage of unmarried women is larger in these categories and in the Indian context unmarried women have a limited say in the monthly expenditure of the household.

Table VIII.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Effect of Their Being in Employment on Important Domestic Issues

Category	(Nos.)					
	Monthly Expenditure			Purchase of Durable Goods		
	No Diffe- rence 1	Some Difference 2	Large Difference 3	No Diffe- rence 4	Some Difference 5	Large Difference 6
0						
1. Scientists	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)
2. Doctors	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	11 (55.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	11 (55.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (20.0)	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	5 (25.0)	9 (45.0)
4. University Teachers	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	5 (25.0)	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)
5. Lawyers	9 (45.0)	10 (50.0)	1 (5.0)	10 (50.0)	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	9 (45.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	9 (45.0)	3 (15.0)
7. Social Scientists	5 (25.0)	12 (60.0)	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	10 (50.0)	4 (20.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	3 (30.0)	4 (40.0)	3 (30.0)	2 (20.0)	6 (60.0)	2 (20.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	9 (45.0)	6 (30.0)	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	52 (30.6)	65 (38.2)	53 (31.2)	51 (30.0)	69 (40.6)	50 (29.4)

Table VIII.7 Contd.

Category	Career of Children			Marriage of Children		
	No	Some	Large	No	Some	Large
	Difference	Difference	Difference	Difference	Difference	Difference
0	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Scientists	3 (15.0)	9 (45.0)	5 (25.0)	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	8 (40.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	-	-
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	-
7. Social Scientists	-	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	2 (10.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)	-	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	9 (45.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)
TOTAL	22 (12.9)	33 (19.4)	33 (19.4)	47 (27.6)	13 (7.6)	17 (10.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

On the issue of purchase of durable goods 40.6 per cent of the respondents reported some difference in their say on this issue and 29.4 per cent said that their being in employment made a large difference in their say on the same issue. Here also 30 per cent of the respondents experienced no difference in their say on purchase of durable goods. As in the case of monthly expenditure a higher than average proportion of lawyers (50 per cent) and architects and engineers (40 per cent) reported that their being in employment made no difference in the purchase of durable goods for the same reason mentioned earlier.

Looking into the say of the respondents on career of children, we observed that only 19.4 per cent reported some and equal per cent large difference of their being in employment on this issue. This relatively low figure is reported because it includes unmarried respondents. 68 per cent of married respondents have said that they do have influence on the career of their children because they are in employment. 12.9 per cent of total respondents and 22.7 per cent of married respondents have reported that their being in employment has made no difference

to their say on career of children. Regarding decisions about marriage of children 27.6 per cent of total respondents and 48.5 per cent of married respondents said that their having a job has made no difference to their say on this issue. 10 per cent and 17.5 per cent of total and married respondents respectively reported that their being in employment has made a large difference in their say on marriage of children. We, therefore, conclude that married respondents actively influence the career of their children. But we observe that male domination remains as regards marriage of children even among these educated married women. However, respondents do play a significant role in decisions on monthly expenditure and purchase of durable goods.

#### VIII.3.2 Authority to Decide on Monetary

Expenditure : In the traditional partriarchal power structure and eldest male member in the family held the final authority on monetary expenditure. In our sample, however, we observe that 45.9 per cent of the respondents have reported that both husband and the respondent have an equal say on monetary expenditure (Table VIII.8). This is explained by the fact that married respondents



Table VIII.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Who Has the Final Authority to Decide on Monetary Expenditure

Category					(Nos.)
	Respondents alone	Husband alone	Both have an equal say	Other Family Members	Total
1. Scientists	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	16 (80.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	15 (75.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	4 (20.0)	1 ( 5.0)	12 (60.0)	3 (15.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	3 (15.0)	1 ( 5.0)	12 (60.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (10.0)	-	1 ( 5.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	-	6 (30.0)	12 (60.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	9 (45.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	-	-	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	9 (45.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	22 (12.9)	10 ( 5.9)	78 (45.9)	60 (35.3)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

contribute actively to household expenditure as mentioned in Chapter V, they thus have the right to be actively involved in major decisions regarding household expenditure. In 35.3 per cent cases other family members have the final authority on monetary expenditure. This comprises mainly of the father and is relevant in the cases of unmarried respondents. In a few cases we also observed that the father-in-law held the final authority on monetary expenditure, thus indicating the existence of the traditional patriarchal system to some extent. This is also reflected in the cases where husbands alone have the final authority to decide on monetary expenditure - 5.9 per cent of the respondents have reported this. 12.9 per cent of respondents alone have the final authority on the issue and this includes widows, divorced and separated respondents and also elderly unmarried women living singly.

A much higher than average proportion of scientists (80 per cent) doctors (75 per cent), degree college and university teachers (both 60 per cent) have reported that both they and their husbands have an equal say on monetary expenditure. Whereas, for a relatively larger proportion of lawyers (85 per cent), auditors and accountants

(80 per cent) and architects and engineers (60 per cent), the final authority on monetary expenditure lies with other family members, mainly the father and in some cases the elder brother also. The reason for this is that the percentage of unmarried respondents is relatively higher in these occupations. On the whole, we assert that there is an emergence of a break away from the traditional patriarchal power structure as the respondents, specifically married respondents, are at par with their husbands regarding authority on monetary expenditure to a large extent.

VIII.3.3 Effect on Family Behaviour : We now examine the effect of respondents being in employment on family behaviour in terms of respect, obedience and seeking advice (Table VIII.9). On all the three issues, 50 per cent of the respondents reported that their being in employment did effect their family behaviour. The data thus reveals a change in family behaviour as 43.5 per cent and 41.1 per cent of the respondents have reported some and moderate effect of their being in employment as regards respect and obedience from family members respectively. A significant fact noted was that 50 per cent of the respondents reported some and moderate effect

**Table VIII.2 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Effect of Their Being in Employment on Family Behaviour**

Category	Respect				Obedience				(Nos.)
	Some Effect		Major Effect		Some Effect		Major Effect		
	No Effect	Effect	No Effect	Effect	No Effect	Effect	No Effect	Effect	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1. Scientists	12 (60.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	-	12 (60.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	-	
2. Doctors	11 (55.0)	7 (35.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	11 (55.0)	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	-	
3. Degree College Teachers	10 (50.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	10 (50.0)	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	
4. University Teachers	8 (40.0)	5 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	
5. Lawyers	7 (35.0)	11 (55.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	12 (60.0)	8 (40.0)	-	-	
6. Architects and Engineers	13 (65.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	14 (70.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 (5.0)	
7. Social Scientists	8 (40.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (80.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	-	9 (90.0)	-	1 (10.0)	-	
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)	11 (55.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	-	
TOTAL	85 (50.0)	48 (28.2)	26 (15.3)	11 (6.5)	93 (54.7)	40 (23.5)	30 (17.6)	7 (4.1)	

Table VIII.9 Contd.

Category	Seeking Advice			
	No Effect	Some Effect	Moderate Effect	Major Effect
0	9	10	11	12
1. Scientists	8 (40.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)
2. Doctors	9 (45.0)	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	6 (30.0)	5 (25.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)
4. University Teachers	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)
5. Lawyers	6 (30.0)	9 (45.0)	5 (25.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	9 (45.0)	7 (35.0)	3 (15.0)	1 (5.0)
7. Social Scientists	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)	7 (35.0)	5 (25.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	5 (50.0)	2 (20.0)	3 (30.0)	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	8 (40.0)	4 (20.0)	6 (30.0)	2 (10.0)
TOTAL	62 (36.5)	42 (24.7)	43 (25.3)	23 (13.5)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

of their being in employment on family members seeking their advice. This highlights the fact that family members have started perceiving working wives and mothers as having an individual identity and thinking. Very few respondents have reported any major effect of their being in employment, on respect (6.5 per cent) and obedience (4.1 per cent) of family members towards them. The highest proportion of respondents mentioning a major effect on family members are on the issue of seeking their advice (13.5 per cent). A roughly similar pattern is observed amongst the respondents within the categories.

VIII.3.4 Effect on Personality Development of the Respondents : We have observed in Chapter VI that personality development is one of the major factors motivating the respondents to pursue a career. It would, therefore, be interesting to note whether being in employment has had a positive or negative effect on their independence, personality development and self-fulfilment. From Table VIII.10 we observe that being in the labour force has had a highly favourable impact, on the respondents regarding these factors. The responses have been taken on a seven-point scale where 0 denotes a very unfavourable



impact and 6 denotes a very favourable impact. Taking up individual factors, we see that as regards impact on independence, almost 70 per cent of the respondents have placed themselves on points 5 and 6 of the scale denoting that their jobs have made a highly favourable impact on this issue. This is so because being in employment gives them greater financial stability and enables them to make independent decisions regarding monetary matters. 27.0 per cent of the respondents have said that their jobs have made a favourable impact on their independence. Only 4.2 per cent have placed themselves on points 0, 1 and 2 of the scale showing thereby that, being in the work force, has had an unfavourable impact on their independence.

Table VIII.10 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Impact of Their Job on Personality Development

Issues	(Nos.)						
	Degree of Impact on a 7 Point Scale*						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Independence	2 (1.2)	1 (0.6)	4 (2.4)	10 (5.9)	35 (20.6)	59 (34.7)	59 (34.7)
Personality Development	-	-	1 (0.6)	1 (0.6)	16 (9.4)	72 (42.4)	80 (47.1)
Self-Fulfilment	1 (0.6)	-	3 (1.8)	9 (5.3)	19 (11.2)	41 (24.1)	97 (57.1)

\* Where 0 is very unfavourable impact and 6 is very favourable impact.

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.

A majority of respondents (89.5 per cent) have reported a very favourable impact of their job on their personality development. Being in employment has led to the emergence of their individual identity and a greater degree of self-expression. Moving out of their homes have increased their horizons and perspectives and this has resulted in a positive effect on their personality development. 10 per cent of the respondents have said that their jobs have made a favourable impact on their personality development as they have placed themselves on points 3 and 4 of the scale. Only one respondent has placed herself on point 2 of the scale which denotes that there is an unfavourable impact of her job on her personality development.

We have observed earlier that for these respondents, self-fulfilment is an important motivational factor to enter the work-force. With greater educational opportunities open to women and increasing number availing of them, it has become imperative for women to do something on their own instead of just managing the household. Zweig's (1952) study also observes that upper class women enter the work force to improve their standard of living

and also for self-fulfilment. In our sample we observed that 81.2 per cent of the respondents have reported a highly favourable impact of their job on self-fulfilment as they have placed themselves on point 5 and 6 of the scale. 16.5 per cent of the respondents experienced a favourable impact of their job on the same as they had placed themselves on points 3 and 4 of the scale. Three respondents have placed themselves on point 2 of the scale denoting an unfavourable impact of their job on self-fulfilment. Only one respondent said that her job has had a highly unfavourable impact on this factor. On the whole we conclude that respondents have expressed a very favourable impact of their jobs on independence, personality development and self-fulfilment.

VIII.3.5 Respondents Opinion on the Status of Working Women : Analysis of respondents opinion on the status of working women in society will throw light upon any change in the attitude of women towards being in the work-force and will also reflect the respondents opinion of her own status in society. The question asked was 'do you feel that the status of a working women is more favourable than a house-wife's in society'. Table VIII.11 shows that a majority of the respondents (19.2 per cent) answered in the affirmative.<sup>5</sup> This reflects the fact

Table VIII.11 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Opinion of the Status of Working Women

Category	(Nos.)		
	Favourable	Unfavourable	Total
1. Scientists	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	19 (95.0)	1 ( 5.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	8 (80.0)	2 (20.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	18 (90.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	155 (91.2)	15 ( 8.8)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

that the respondents do not perceive their being in employment as a necessity because of existing inflationary pressures. They, however, place working women on a higher pedestal than housewives. This is a significant finding as it reflects the fact that they have a positive attitude towards their being in employment. From this we can also gauge that society has accepted these professional workers and gives them a higher status than housewife's. Only 8.8 per cent of the respondents felt that the status of the housewife was more favourable than that of a working woman in society. Within the categories we observed that a higher proportion of university teachers and auditors and accountants felt that the status of working women was unfavourable as compared to a housewife in society.

#### VIII.4 Conclusions

The major findings of this chapter may now be summed up. A significant finding of our study is that the respondents get help from their husbands in all the domestic chores to some extent. There is thus an emergence of a more egalitarian division of labour at home with both husband and wife sharing typically "male" and "female"

tasks. Respondents in traditional occupations spend more time on domestic work than those in non-traditional occupations, as the former have a higher average age and are thus more influenced by their traditional role.

A majority of the respondents depend upon hired help for domestic chores. The number of respondents hiring servants and number of servants hired is linked with the economic status of the respondent. A large proportion of the respondents depend upon their in-laws/other family members or servants to look after the children in their absence. The respondents strongly expressed the need for proper day-care centres and creches for pre-school going children, particularly those respondents who leave their children to servants during working hours.

Another important finding is that respondents' family members approve of their present jobs, thus enabling the respondents to continue being in the labour force and minimising the extent of role conflict for the respondent. Family members preference for types of jobs was not guided by traditional norms.



The respondents play a significant role in decisions on monthly household expenditure and purchase of durable goods as a result of their active contribution to the family income. Also married respondents are at par with their husbands regarding authority on monetary expenditure. Thus a significant conclusion drawn is that the traditional patriarchal family power-structure is changing, though in some respects it continues, for example, in decisions regarding marriage of children. The study highlights a positive change in the perception of family members towards the respondents on issues like respect, obedience and seeking advice.

Being in the labour force has had a highly favourable impact on the respondents personality development and self-fulfilment. The respondents have a positive attitude towards their being in employment as they feel that the status of a working women is more favourable than a housewife's in society.

On the whole we conclude that respondents get husband's help, hired help or kin support for domestic chores which reduces extent of role conflict. Family members approval of the respondents jobs enables them to continue in the

labour force. There is a definite change in their status within the household as they are actively involved in all decision-making issues, including authority on monetary expenditure. The respondents have expressed a very favourable impact of their jobs on independence, personality development and self-fulfilment.

## NOTES

1. Talwar's (1984) study of working women in Jodhpur observes that the participation of working women in household activities was much lower than that of non-working women.
2. Talwar (1984) also observes that average time spent on domestic work goes on increasing with a decline in socio-economic class position.
3. These studies mentioned also observe that the distribution of domestic responsibility is still along fairly traditional lines, irrespective of socio-economic status or sex-role attitudes.
4. Studies in industrialised countries also observe that working women depend more on domestic help than non-working women (Powell, 1961).
5. Srivastava's (1978) study of educated, married working women observe that 'as a consequence of their employment, working women become more favourably disposed towards the issue of women's participation in gainful activity'.

## CHAPTER IX

Role ConflictIX.0 Introduction

Role conflict refers to the existence of conflicting demands within one person. With reference to women workers the dual roles are, one as home maker and the other as an employee. Taking account of the obvious divergence between the two roles, women workers are confronted with role conflict. Combining traditional expectations regarding gender roles with their office work leads to the emergence of role conflict. This manifests itself in feeling of guilt in the women for neglecting domestic duties specially child care, tension at home, poor health because of overwork, inefficiency at work, etc. A large number of studies have focused on this problem of role conflict and its various manifestations both in India and in western countries (Kapur, 1970; Srivastava, 1978; Talwar, 1984; Jain, 1988; Hoffman, 1979; Kamerman, 1980; Pollert, 1981; Sharpe, 1984).

In this Chapter we analyse the respondents adjustment between domestic and office work, whether they carry

office work to home, the extent to which they can pursue their hobbies, effect of touring jobs on children, the existence of role conflict and the respondents preference between job and family.

IX.1 Extent of Adjustment Between Domestic and Office Work

One of the basic problems faced by working women is the difficulty in combining domestic and office work. We asked the respondents to note down the extent of this adjustment on a seven point scale where 0 denoted total maladjustment and 6 denoted absolute adjustment. It is important to note here that the responses do not rule out the existence or non-existence of role conflict or tension for the respondent. The answers simply indicate whether the respondents are able to combine domestic and office work. The adverse effects of this attempt at combining domestic and office work are not reflected in this analysis.

Analysing the responses we observed that 64 per cent of the respondents have reported a high level

of adjustment between domestic and office work as they have placed themselves on points 5 and 6 of the seven-point scale (Table IX.1). This is in consonance with Talwar's (1984) study, where, over half the respondents felt that official and domestic work could be carried out simultaneously. 33 per cent of the respondents in our sample reported a moderate degree of adjustment between their dual roles as they had placed themselves on points 3 and 4 of the scale. Only five respondents had placed themselves on points 1 and 2 of the scale thus reporting a low level of adjustment on this issue. There were no major discrepancies from this general pattern within the categories. We, therefore, conclude that these professional workers have been able to achieve the critical balance between office and domestic work. The reason behind this is that most of the respondents have husbands help, hired help or kin support, as has been observed earlier to ease off the burden of domestic chores.

IX.2 Frequency of Carrying Office Work to Home and Time Spent on It

Working women have a limited time to spend on domestic duties and responsibilities and thus, time-



Table IX.1 : Distribution of Respondents According to Adjustment Between Domestic and Office Work

Category	Degree of Adjustment on a 7 Point Scale									(Nos.)
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Scientists	-	1 (5.0)	-	2 (10.0)	3 (15.0)	3 (15.0)	11 (55.0)			
2. Doctors	-	-	-	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	7 (35.0)	5 (25.0)			
3. Degree College Teachers	-	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	9 (45.0)			
4. University Teachers	-	-	-	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	7 (35.0)			
5. Lawyers	-	-	-	-	8 (40.0)	7 (35.0)	5 (25.0)			
6. Architects and Engineers	-	-	-	-	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	9 (45.0)			
7. Social Scientists	-	-	-	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	8 (40.0)	8 (40.0)			
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	-	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	3 (30.0)	3 (30.0)	2 (20.0)			
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	-	-	1 (5.0)	3 (15.0)	7 (35.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)			
TOTAL	-	2 (1.2)	3 (1.8)	13 (7.6)	43 (25.3)	50 (29.4)	59 (34.7)			

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

management between office and domestic work is of crucial importance to avoid role conflict and tension. In our sample we observed that though a large proportion of respondents (62.4 per cent) had been able to separate official and domestic work, 37.6 per cent of the respondents had to cut down upon the time devoted to the family by carrying office work to home (Table IX.2). The burden of carrying office work to home depends upon the nature of profession of the respondents. Thus the incidence of this is particularly high in the case of university teachers (70 per cent), degree college teachers (50 per cent) and lawyers (65 per cent). For teachers, it is necessary to put in a few hours of work everyday to prepare for their lectures. Lawyers reported that they have to study the cases given to them at home as this cannot be done while they are in court. The table shows that a very low proportion of doctors (15 per cent), social scientists (15 per cent), architects and engineers (20 per cent) and auditors and accountants (20 per cent) carry office work to home thus, highlighting the fact that respondents have been able to separate domestic and office work.

Table IX.2 : Distribution of Respondents According to Whether They Carry Office Work to Home

Category	(Nos.)		
	Those who do carry work to home	Those who don't carry work to home	Total
1. Scientists	7 (35.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	3 (15.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	10 (50.0)	10 (50.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	15 (75.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	13 (65.0)	7 (35.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	16 (80.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	3 (15.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	7 (35.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	64 (37.6)	106 (62.4)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

Table IX.3 focuses on the distribution of respondents according to frequency per week of carrying office work to home. We observed that 14.1 per cent of the respondents carried office work to home on only 1 or 2 days per week. 13.5 per cent of the respondents did so on 3 to 4 days per week and 9.4 per cent of the respondents carried office work to home on 5 days or more per week. A relatively higher proportion of scientists (30 per cent) and administrative and executive workers (25 per cent) carried work to home on 1-2 days per week. We have observed earlier that a higher proportion of university and degree college teachers and lawyers carry office work to home. Here we observe that these respondents also have a relatively higher frequency of carrying office work to home (3 days or more per week). The reason being the same as mentioned above that the nature of their job makes it necessary for them to carry office work to home frequently.

Analysing the time taken per week to do office work at home (Table IX.4) we observe that the highest proportion of respondents (15.3 per cent) take a minimum of 4-6 hours per week to do so. Among these a much higher proportion of administrative and executive workers (30 per cent) take the same time to do office work at home.

Table IX.3 : Distribution of Respondents According to Frequency Per Week of Carrying Office Work to Home

Category	(Nos.)			Total
	Number of Days Per Week			
	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 and Above	
1. Scientists	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	7 (35.0)
2. Doctors	-	3 (15.0)	-	3 (15.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	10 (50.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (20.0)	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	15 (75.0)
5. Lawyers	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	7 (35.0)	13 (65.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	-	-	4 (20.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	-	3 (15.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	-	-	2 (20.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	5 (25.0)	2 (10.0)	-	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	25 (14.7)	23 (13.5)	16 ( 9.4)	64 (37.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

Table IX.4 : Distribution of Respondents According to Time Taken per Week to do Office Work at Home

Category	(Nos.)				Total
	Time Taken (in Hours) Per Week				
	4 - 6	7 - 9	10 - 12	13 and More	
1. Scientists	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	-	-	7 (35.0)
2. Doctors	-	-	3 (15.0)	-	3 (15.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	10 (50.0)
4. University Teachers	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	3 (15.0)	15 (75.0)
5. Lawyers	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	4 (20.0)	13 (65.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	4 (20.0)	-	-	-	4 (20.0)
7. Social Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	3 (15.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	2 (20.0)	-	-	-	2 (20.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)	-	-	7 (35.0)
TOTAL	26 (15.3)	12 ( 7.0)	15 ( 8.8)	11 ( 6.5)	64 (37.6)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.



A majority of respondents taking more than 6 hours per week to do office work at home comprise of university and degree college teachers and lawyers. We have observed above that the nature of their job demands them to do office work at home on a regular basis. This may lead to the emergence of role conflict among these respondents as they cut into a relatively higher proportion of time devoted to household responsibilities. However, we have observed in Chapter VI that the working hours of teachers and lawyers are relatively lower compared to respondents in other categories, leaving them with more time for domestic work. We have observed earlier that the respondents spend an average of four hours with their family members and three hours in doing domestic work thus their carrying office work to home does not hinder their domestic responsibilities and the problem of role conflict is minimised.

### IX.3 Extent of Being Able to Pursue Hobbies

We have seen from the above analysis that the respondents have by and large achieved a balanced between domestic and office work. We now examine whether they

have any spare time to themselves to pursue any hobbies or interests that they have (Table IX.5). A little more than half the respondents have reported that they rarely manage to pursue their hobbies, thus, highlighting the fact that between domestic and office work, the respondents have hardly any time left to themselves. However, 35.3 per cent of the respondents have reported that they are able to follow their hobbies often and 11.8 per cent have said that they are able to do so very often.

Within the categories, we observed, that a large proportion of administrative and executive workers (80 per cent), architects and engineers (70 per cent), social scientists and auditors and accountants (both 60 per cent) were able to pursue their hobbies rarely. The reason behind this may be that all these are non-traditional occupations and we have observed earlier (Chapter VII) that the respondents in these occupations feel that they have to work harder to succeed in their profession. This along with domestic responsibilities leaves little time for respondents, in these occupations, to pursue their hobbies. A relatively higher proportion

Table IX.5 : Distribution of Respondents According to the Extent of Being Able to Pursue Their Hobbies

Category	(Nos.)			
	Rarely	Often	Very Often	Total
1. Scientists	10 (50.0)	8 (40.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	11 (55.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	12 (60.0)	5 (25.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	11 (55.0)	5 (25.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	7 (35.0)	11 (55.0)	2 (10.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	14 (70.0)	6 (30.0)	-	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	12 (60.0)	4 (20.0)	4 (20.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	6 (60.0)	3 (30.0)	1 (10.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	16 (80.0)	4 (20.0)	-	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	90 (52.9)	60 (35.3)	20 (11.8)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages.

of degree college teachers (60 per cent) and lawyers (55 per cent) are able to pursue their hobbies often. This is in consonance with the fact that their average working hours are lower as compared to respondents in other professions. Also a relatively higher proportion of degree college and university teachers are able to pursue their hobbies very often for similar reasons mentioned above. We, therefore, conclude that by and large respondents are unable to pursue their hobbies and those who do manage to do so are in professions where average working hours are comparatively lower.

#### IX.4 Extent of Touring and Its Effect on Children

We now examine the extent of touring done by the respondents and its effect on their children. From Table IX.6 we observe that only respondents in non-traditional occupations (barring lawyers), have touring jobs. This is a significant finding as it reveals that women have started taking up touring jobs. In our sample, fifteen respondents had touring jobs, a majority of them were administrative and executive workers (30 per cent) and social scientists (25 per cent). The table

Table IX.6 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number Who Have Touring Jobs and Extent of Touring

Category	Number of Days of Touring Per Month			(Nos.)
	Upto 3	4 - 6	More than 6	Total Number of Respondents who have Touring Jobs
1. Architects and Engineers	-	1 ( 5.0)	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)
2. Social Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)
3. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	1 (10.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)
4. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)
TOTAL	2 ( 1.2)	7 ( 4.1)	6 ( 3.5)	15 ( 8.8)

- Note :
1. Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.
  2. Respondents in other categories do not have touring jobs.

also shows the number of days of touring per month.

Most of the respondents with touring jobs were away from home for either 4-6 days per month (7 respondents) or more than 6 days per month (6 respondents). Only 2 respondents toured for an average of upto 3 days a month. A higher than average proportion of administrative and executive workers, social scientists and auditors and accountants travelled for 4-6 days or more per month.

Analysing the effect of touring jobs on the respondents children, we observe that most of the respondents reported that their touring did not adversely effect their children. This is in consonance with the fact observed earlier that attitude of children towards respondents job is generally favourable. However, one social scientist and one I.A.S. officer who toured for an average of 10 days per month, reported that their children feel neglected. Both the respondents had children below 10 years of age and though they expressed feeling guilty about neglecting their children, they were unable to reduce their touring as their jobs demanded excessive touring. We may conclude that very few respondents (8.8 per cent) had touring jobs and were



away from home for more than four days per month. This did not have any adverse effects on their children except for two respondents.

#### IX.5 Adverse Effects of Being in Employment

So far we have analysed that, on the whole, respondents have adjusted well between office and domestic work. It will be interesting to observe whether respondents have been adversely effected in any way because of their jobs. We have analysed adverse effects along three parameters, viz. tension at home, existence of role conflict and poor health because of the dual burden of domestic and office work. Table IX.7 shows that 31.2 per cent of the respondents have been adversely effected in some way because of their being in employment. This shows that even though women have started entering the work force in increasing numbers they have been unable to completely shake off their traditional role as home makers to some extent, and are thus adversely effected in some way. The largest proportion of respondents (24.1 per cent) being adversely effected, have reported

Table IX.7 : Distribution of Respondents According to Number Who have been Adversely Effected because of Their Job

Category	(Nos.)				
	Respondents who have experienced tension at home because of their job	Respondents who have experienced role conflict	Respondents whose health is adversely effected because of dual role	Total Respondents adversely effected	Respondents have considered giving up their job
1. Scientists	2 (10.0)	-	9 (45.0)	7 (35.0)	1 ( 5.0)
2. Doctors	5 (25.0)	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	2 (10.0)	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	5 (25.0)	-
4. University Teachers	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	3 (15.0)	5 (25.0)	-
5. Lawyers	7 (35.0)	1 ( 5.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	-
6. Architects and Engineers	2 (10.0)	1 ( 5.0)	6 (30.0)	6 (30.0)	1 ( 5.0)
7. Social Scientists	4 (20.0)	2 (10.0)	4 (20.0)	7 (35.0)	2 (10.0)
8. Auditots, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	1 (10.0)	-	1 (10.0)	2 (20.0)	-
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	3 (15.0)	6 (30.0)	3 (15.0)	8 (40.0)	1 ( 5.0)
TOTAL	28 (16.5)	17 (10.0)	41 (24.1)	53 (31.2)	6 ( 3.5)

Note : 1. Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents in that category.

2. Total figures does not tally because the question have been asked separately, thus there is overlapping of responses.

poor health as a result of attempting to combine office and domestic work. These respondents are finding it difficult to bear the burden of their dual role and experience fatigue and tiredness due to overwork. 16.5 per cent of the respondents have reported tension in the home because of their jobs and 10 per cent have reported the existence of role conflict.

A relatively much higher proportion of lawyers (35 per cent) and doctors (25 per cent) experienced tension at home because of their job. One reason for this may be that respondents in these occupations have indefinite working hours, as we have observed in Chapter VI, this may lead to their having less time to attend to domestic responsibilities, resulting in tension at home. A relatively higher proportion of administrative and executive workers (30 per cent) and university teachers (20 per cent) are finding it difficult to combine their role of home maker and employee and thus experience role conflict. 45 per cent of scientists and 30 per cent of degree college teachers and architects and engineers have reported that their health has been adversely effected because of their jobs.

Though almost one-third of the respondents have been adversely effected because of their jobs, it is significant to note that only 3.5 per cent have actually considered giving up their jobs, the highest incidence being amongst social scientists (10 per cent). This is an important finding as it reveals that though for some respondents, their jobs have had some negative impact on their lives, they still feel that being in employment is imperative for them. It may be noted here that respondents have not entered the work force due to economic necessity, which further strengthens the fact that their jobs are an important aspect of their lives as they are willing to face any adverse effects in terms of tension at home, role conflict and poor health because of their jobs.

#### IX .6 Preference Between Job and Family

We have observed above that the dual burden of office and domestic responsibilities has adversely effected some respondents but a majority of these still want to continue with their jobs. To gauge where their preference lies in terms of job and family, we asked the

respondents what they would give preference to in the event of a conflict between the two. Almost two-thirds of the respondents said that they would make a compromise between job and family (Table IX.8). This is a significant fact as it reveals a change in the attitude of women towards their jobs. They have started giving equal importance to their job and family thus they would attempt a compromise between them instead of simply leaving their jobs. However, 17.6 per cent of the respondents give their family greater importance in the event of a conflict, implying that even these professional workers are guided by their stereotype role of mothers and wives, to some extent. Interestingly 8.2 per cent of the respondents reported that they would give preference to their jobs over their family indicating a change in the perception of these workers towards their traditional responsibilities and duties.

We observed that a relatively higher proportion of lawyers (20 per cent) and degree college teachers (15 per cent) have said that they would give preference to their jobs in the event of a conflict. One reason for this may be that a majority of the lawyers and 35 per cent of degree college teachers are unmarried. Since



Table IX.8 : Distribution of Respondents According to Their Preference Between Job and Family

Category	Respondents Giving Preference to			(Nos.)
	Total			
	Their Job	Their Family	Compromise Between Job and Family	
1. Scientists	1 ( 5.0)	5 (25.0)	14 (70.0)	20 (100.0)
2. Doctors	2 (10.0)	5 (25.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)
3. Degree College Teachers	3 (15.0)	4 (20.0)	13 (65.0)	20 (100.0)
4. University Teachers	1 ( 5.0)	3 (15.0)	16 (80.0)	20 (100.0)
5. Lawyers	4 (20.0)	1 ( 5.0)	15 (75.0)	20 (100.0)
6. Architects and Engineers	-	2 (10.0)	18 (90.0)	20 (100.0)
7. Social Scientists	2 (10.0)	6 (30.0)	12 (60.0)	20 (100.0)
8. Auditors, Accountants, Mathematicians and Statisticians	-	2 (20.0)	8 (80.0)	10 (100.0)
9. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	1 ( 5.0)	2 (10.0)	17 (85.0)	20 (100.0)
TOTAL	14 ( 8.2)	30 (17.6)	126 (74.1)	170 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parentheses denote percentages to total respondents.



they have no experience of family responsibilities, they give greater importance to their jobs. 30 per cent of social scientists and 25 per cent of doctors and scientists give preference to their family vis-a-vis their job. A relatively higher proportion of administrative and executive workers (85 per cent), architects and engineers (90 per cent), university teachers and auditors and accounts (both 80 per cent) would prefer a compromise between job and family if there was a conflict between them. We may conclude that in the event of a conflict the respondents would by and large make a compromise between job and family implying that both are equally important facets of their lives.

#### IX.7 Conclusions

We now sum up the important findings of our analysis. A significant conclusion of our study is that respondents have a high level of adjustment between domestic and office work as they have hired help or kin support, which helps in reducing the extent of role conflict. Though a majority of the respondents had separated domestic and office work, some did carry office work to home because of the nature of their jobs. Between

domestic and office work respondents have barely any time left for themselves as they are rarely able to pursue their hobbies. An interesting finding is that some respondents do have touring jobs though they are confined to non-traditional occupations only.

A major conclusion drawn by our study was that less than one-third of the respondents were adversely effected by their job in some respect viz. tension at home, poor health because of their dual burden or role conflict. This reveals that due to the overall change in their status and power at home, the influence of their stereotype role as home-makers on them is considerably reduced. Very few respondents have considered giving up their jobs, signifying that their jobs are an important aspect of their lives. The same conclusion is reflected in the fact that a majority of the respondents have opted for a compromise between job and family in the event of a conflict between them.

On the whole we conclude that the respondents have been able to adjust between domestic and office work to a large extent and this has been possible because of

help from their husbands, kin-support and hired help. Family members approval of respondents job has resulted in a low extent of role conflict for them. There is a low level of role conflict or tension for the respondents and they give their job and family equal importance in the event of a conflict.

## CHAPTER X

ConclusionObjectives and Design of Study

The main objectives of our study were to carry out an in-depth analysis of the socio-economic and demographic characteristics, working conditions, job satisfaction and extent of role conflict of women professional workers in Lucknow city. The study is based on the responses of 170 women workers in selected occupations in the Census categories of professional, technical and related workers and administrative, executive and managerial workers. The specific professions studied were scientists; doctors; degree college teachers; university teachers; lawyers; social scientists; architects and engineers; auditors, accountants, mathematicians and statisticians and administrative, executive and managerial workers. The respondents were selected by the method of stratified random sampling and we have taken 20 respondents from each selected group - in the case of teachers, 40 respondents have been taken (20 degree teachers and 20 university teachers) in view of their larger number, in the case of auditors and accountants etc., 10 respondents have been taken because more

respondents could not be identified at the time of the survey. We have thus attempted to take a representative sample of professional workers. The survey was conducted by the researcher with the help of a structured questionnaire. The major findings of each chapter have been given at the end of the chapter. Here we only highlight the salient points emerging from our analysis.

#### Structure of the Female Workforce in Lucknow

Females have an extremely low work participation rate in Lucknow urban (3.70 per cent) as compared with males (47.72 per cent) which reflects the impact of social values and customs which do not favour participation of women in economic activities outside their home. The occupational pattern of Lucknow urban shows that there is a concentration of women workers in the tertiary sector. The significant growth of women in this sector shows a change in the social attitudes towards women in employment and also rising economic pressures in urban areas. The highest proportion of female workers are professional, technical and related workers, followed by service and clerical workers. In professional, technical and related workers there is a clear segregation of the labour market

due to gender. This corroborates with our hypothesis that there is a concentration of women professional workers in selected occupations, particularly school teachers and nurses. These two occupations along with the medical profession constitute a majority of female workers in this category. Segregation occurs because these occupations are traditionally accepted for women. An encouraging fact however is that the growth of women in non-traditional and hitherto male dominated occupations, like architects, engineers, auditors and accountants etc., has been significant between 1971-81. Among administrative, executive and managerial workers, women are heavily concentrated in government and educational and research institutions. Thus, increasing educational levels and consequent change in social attitudes is resulting in increasing numbers of women entering the professional cadres in Lucknow urban.

#### Social Characteristics

Looking into the social characteristics of the respondents, we found that a majority of them belonged to high caste Hindu households, specially Kayasths and Brahmins. Muslims formed a very small proportion of the



sample despite the fact that they form a considerable proportion of the total population of the city. Among Muslim women spread of higher education is much less and social taboos are stronger. Again, there is no representation of Scheduled Castes and Tribes and Backward Castes, thus highlighting the discriminatory social framework against them.

✓ The respondents household members are highly educated with 71 per cent of members being graduates and above. Therefore, higher education is a key factor for women entering the professional cadres. 62 per cent of the respondents have professional training specially those who are in non-traditional occupations, signifying that the respondents have not been deterred by extensive training to take up professions of their choice. ✓

#### Employment and Occupational Status of Household Members

The employment status of respondents' household members shows that more than half the family members are working and the incidence of unemployment is minimal. Half the economically active members of the respondents'

✓ households are in government service. ✓ There is a close linkage between the occupation of family members and that of respondents as an almost similar proportion of the respondents are in government service. The proportion of occupational consistency between spouses is fairly high, amongst the respondents except in the case of degree college teachers. ✓ It is evident that respondents are in professions which are equal in prestige with their husbands professions. ✓

#### Parental Background

Analysis of the parental background of the respondents reveals that they come from small size families (average size 4.5 members) with a high educational level (76 per cent of members are graduates or post-graduates). Educated parents are able to motivate their daughters to take up higher education and professional training and enter the work force. ✓ 301. A majority of the respondents parental family members were employed and a significant proportion of female members were in the labour force. This highlights the fact that female participation in economic activity was already established in the parental households of the respondent. A majority of the family

members were in government service thus focusing on the fact that respondents choice of profession is also closely linked with that of her parental family members'. The economic status of the parental household is in consonance with our hypothesis that a major proportion of women professional workers belong to urban middle class families with per capita household income of Rs.2,196 on average.

#### Age and Marital Status

The average age of the respondents is 34.8 years thus revealing that women's entry into the professional cadres is a new phenomenon, particularly so for those entering non-traditional occupations. The average age of respondents in traditional occupations is higher as these professions have been accessible for women for a comparatively larger period of time. Three-fourths of household members of respondents are in the economically active age-group. 57 per cent of the respondents are married and there are only three cases of divorced or separated women, highlighting the fact that, in the Indian context, women have an inherently strong instinct to sustain family life. The respondents have a high mean age

at marriage (25.3 years), other studies have also indicated that average age at marriage for working women is much higher. This is so because all the respondents have a high educational level and a majority of them have undergone extensive professional training. A large percentage of them have entered matrimony after completing their professional training and joining service.

### Children

A high educational level coupled with participation in economic activity has enabled the respondents to consciously limit the size of their families - average number of children per married respondent is only 1.5. A striking finding is that none of the respondents had more than 3 children. The sex ratio of children is unfavourable to female children as there are 833 females per thousand males. 35.6 per cent of respondents have only male children and 28 have only female children, thus ruling out any attitudinal bias amongst the respondents, for a male child. Our findings clearly show that the respondents participation is not affected by age of children, as a considerable proportion of them have pre-school going

children. ✓ The respondents had also spaced their children properly with a gap of two or more years between the children.

#### Size and Structure of Family

Women's entry into the work force has catalysed the formation of nuclear families which adapt easily to the urban life-style compared with the traditional joint family. ✓ Our findings corroborate this as 93 per cent of the respondents have nuclear families - the average family size being 4.2 members per household. <sup>80%</sup> Most of the respondents resided either with their husbands or their parents, very few resided singly. ✓ An interesting finding was that half the respondents had their parents or in-laws residing with them, this has enabled the respondents to continue their jobs as both parents and in-laws helped in looking after the children. ✓ Their presence has been particularly helpful for respondents with pre-school going children.

#### Asset Ownership

The respondents belong to the affluent group of the population in terms of income levels as well as asset ownership. Average value of assets per household were



Rs. 3 lakhs with doctors having the highest value of assets (Rs. 5 lakhs) and auditors and accountants having the least (Rs. 2 lakhs). Almost all the respondents possessed luxury items like a refrigerator and a television set. There was increasing use of other luxury items like video and mechanical domestic appliances like a washing machine. Educated working women are increasingly depending on mechanisation of domestic work as they have limited time for household chores and hired help is becoming scarce in urban areas.

#### Income Levels

These educated professional workers earned much more than educated urban workers in other professions - their average income was Rs.3,564. Here again doctors had a relatively higher income level and lawyers had a relatively low level of earnings as they belonged to a younger age-group and were recent entrants to the labour force, also litigants were biased against them due to gender, revealing the existence of discrimination in this profession. The household income of the respondents was also along a similar pattern. The findings were in consonance with our hypothesis that urban educated women prefer salaried



jobs as a major source of monthly income of the respondents was through service. However, all the lawyers and a significant proportion of doctors were self-employed. A significant finding of our study is that level of earnings and educational qualifications of the respondents was positively correlated - this was in consonance with our hypothesis. Also respondents with science backgrounds had a higher income level than those with arts/commerce background. We also observed a correlation between higher qualifications and higher earnings.

The respondents contribution to household income (38.5 per cent) highlights the fact that they do not merely "supplement" family income, as is generally believed regarding women workers, but contribute significantly to it, thus their status within the household is enhanced.

#### Contribution to Household Expenditure

A bulk of the household expenditure of the respondents was on non-food items as they belonged to the affluent section of the population. A significant

finding of our study is that all respondents living with their husbands contributed to household expenditure and a majority of them contributed to 50 per cent or more of the expenditure. This brings to the limelight the fact that these educated workers share a proportionate burden of the expenditure with their spouses, reaffirming that their income is not "secondary". Interestingly, however, a large proportion of respondents living with their parents did not contribute at all towards household expenditure because in India conventionally parents do not take financial support from young unmarried daughters. Young, unmarried respondents living singly contributed only marginally towards household expenditure for similar reasons. Savings of the respondents was fairly high and they saved more than their expenditure. Thus, the respondents economic and subsequently social status is favourably affected because of an almost equal contribution towards family income as well as household expenditure.

#### Motivational Factors and Job Preferences

Personality development, academic interest and desire to pursue a job were the major motivating factors for the respondents to take up professional training.

It is evident that self-motivation plays an important role in this issue, also the respondents are career-oriented and have not undergone professional training simply to utilise time. This is further reaffirmed by the fact that career ambitions, improvement in standard of living and economic independence are major motivating factors for the respondent to enter the labour force. Though inspiration from family members (mostly fathers) played a significant role in respondents choice of profession, a large number of respondents are new entrants into the labour force again reaffirming that self-motivation instead of parental pressure is the predominant factor for entering the work force. Job preferences for respondents are guided mainly by level of earnings and non-transferability and also by attitude of husband/father and provision of social security benefits, this corroborates our hypothesis. Thus we conclude that respondents choice of job is affected by her traditional role to some extent.

#### Occupational History

Examining the occupational history of the respondents we find that age at joining work is dependent

upon minimum time period for training. Therefore respondents in non-traditional sectors entered the work force at a lower age than those in traditional occupations - average age at joining work of the sample is 24.2 years. The average duration of service (10.8 years) was higher for respondents in traditional occupations compared with those in non-traditional occupations as the former have been accessible to women for a comparatively longer time period. The respondents did not indulge in job hopping, only one-fourth had changed jobs, the incidence being higher for women in non-traditional occupations. The major reason for job change was "better prospects", reasserting the fact that the respondents are career oriented. The period of frictional unemployment is low amongst these workers implying that the labour market is favourable towards them. A significant finding is that interruptions in career for child bearing and rearing was reported only by a few respondents in traditional occupations, as they also belonged to a higher age-group. Career-orientation is stronger amongst younger women in non-traditional professions.

Nature of Work and Level of Unionisation

A majority of the respondents are in government service, however, respondents in the "newer" professions are opting for private organisations. The respondents are working in a male-dominated environment, specially those in non-traditional occupations. A very low proportion of these workers were in administrative managerial or supervisory posts, signifying the continued existence of male-domination in these spheres. A large proportion of respondents were engaged in teaching and research which is in accordance with the traditional concept of women in employment. Therefore we observe sex segregation of the labour market in terms of nature of duties even amongst these educated workers. Working hours of the respondents were dependant upon the nature of their duties, however a majority of them had fixed working hours barring doctors and lawyers. Most of the respondents received all the basic allowances signifying that there is no discrimination amongst these workers on this issue.



Contrary to the general idea that women take too many leaves, respondents in our sample availed of less than a month of leave. An important conclusion emerging from our data is that the dual burden of office and domestic work has adversely affected the level of unionisation amongst the respondents. There is a low level of unionisation and negligible representation of the respondents in administrative posts of the union. This is a disconcerting fact as unions play an important role in influencing the organisation and structure of work and the role of women in them will enhance their status in the work-place.

#### Discrimination and Bias

Though by and large, the respondents did not experience any discrimination at the time of recruitment indicating that there is an emerging trend of a changed social attitude regarding women in employment, subtle bias and discrimination did exist particularly for women entering non-traditional occupations. This was mainly due to the employers conservative attitude towards women in these professions.



The respondents work in a male-dominated work atmosphere as most of them had male co-workers and shared their rooms with a mixed group. It is evident that women in the professional cadres have started entering "male" departments. A high interactional level with their male colleagues signifies the emergence of attitudinal change among male co-workers regarding their female colleagues. However, female lawyers have reported a low interactional level with their male colleagues, signifying that male attitudes are still bound by age-old conventions in this profession. A significant finding is that these workers did not experience any overt harassment from their male colleagues which is a break away from other studies stating the existence of harassment from male-co-workers. Thus education favourably affects the status of women workers in the workplace. But a considerable proportion of respondents did report that male colleagues treated them as inferior to them because of their gender. This re-affirms the fact that subtle discrimination does exist even amongst these educated workers. The attitude of male superiors and subordinates reveals that the respondents have been accepted

in their professions on an equal footing as their male counterparts. Discriminatory attitude of superiors and subordinates does exist to some extent for respondents in non-traditional occupations as they are recent entrants to the work force and it takes time to break-away from traditional concepts.

The respondents had ample employment opportunities as their jobs were in consonance with their professional/academic qualifications, signifying that the labour market is favourably disposed towards educated professional workers. An important finding was that respondents felt that women had to work harder to succeed in their profession as they had to prove their worth in a male-dominated work environment, particularly respondents in non-traditional occupations. This reaffirms the fact that subtle discrimination does prevail in these professions. A significant fact revealed by the data is that there are no male-female wage differentials amongst the respondents - this is in direct contradiction to a large number of studies on urban women workers which have observed a clear earning differential. Thus we conclude that overt

forms of discrimination are completely absent, only bias due to continued existence of conservative attitudes does exist to some extent.

### Job Satisfaction

✓ The respondents had a high level of job satisfaction regarding remunerations, suitable working hours, security of service and extent of decision-making powers. A low level of satisfaction regarding chances of promotion implies the existence of some latent discrimination amongst these workers. ✓ Respondents are also not satisfied with the provision of welfare measures indicating that employers have not seen to the special needs of women workers for a fair proportion of respondents have complained against the lack of proper creches for their children.

### Domestic Duties and Extent of Husband's Help

A significant finding of our study was that the respondents get help from their husbands in all the domestic chores, to some extent. There is thus an emergence of a more egalitarian division of labour at home

with both husband and wife sharing typically "male" and "female" tasks. As these workers stay away from home for practically the whole day, they require someone to take care of their home and children in their absence. They, therefore depend on hired help to ease the burden of domestic chores and also to look after their children. Child-care is also left to in-laws and other family members in their absence. The respondents strongly expressed the need for proper day-care centres for pre-school going children, particularly those who had purely nuclear families and thus had to leave their children to servants during working hours.

#### Attitude of Family Members Towards Respondents Job

It was observed that family members of professional workers approved of their present jobs, thus enabling them to continue in the labour force and minimise the extent of role conflict amongst these workers. Significantly, family members preference for types of jobs preferred for the respondents, was not guided by traditional norms except for their preference for non-travelling jobs. There is thus a change in the perception of family

members particularly parents and in-laws as they have positively accepted the idea of working daughters and daughters-in-law.

#### Impact on Status in the Household

There is a significant change from the traditional patriarchal family power structure regarding households of these professional workers. This change is directly related with their being in employment. They play a significant role in decisions on monthly household expenditure and purchase of durable goods because of their economic contribution to the household and married respondents are at par with their husbands regarding authority on monetary expenditure. However, the traditional system still exists in the case of unmarried workers to a large extent. There was a positive change in the perception of family members towards the respondents on issues like respect, obedience and seeking advice.

Being in the labour force has had a highly favourable impact on the respondents personality development and self-fulfilment. Being in employment has lead to



the emergence of their individual identity and a greater degree of self-expression. They also have a positive attitude towards being in employment thus indicating that they have entered the labour force out of choice and not compulsion.

#### Role Conflict

It was <sup>observed</sup> that the respondents have adjusted favourably with domestic and office work as they have kin support and hired help for domestic chores. However, they are left with little time to pursue their hobbies. A significant finding was that less than one-third of the respondents were adversely affected by their being in employment in terms of tension at home, poor health because of dual burden and role conflict. Their stereotype role as home makers is considerably reduced due to the overall change in their status at home. This fact is further reaffirmed as respondents have opted for a compromise between job and family in the event of a conflict implying that both are equally important facets of their lives.



Summing Up

To sum up, our study clearly indicates that the impact of women joining professional cadres is highly favourable for their status in the workplace, in the household and consequently in society. These women have succeeded in breaking from the traditional low paid occupations reserved for women and have started entering male-dominated professions signifying an attitudinal change among educated women regarding choice of profession. A significant attitudinal change in male workers is also evident towards females in the labour force. There are no blatant forms of discrimination against these professional women workers as are prevalent in the case of women workers in traditional sectors. Male/female wage differentials do not exist amongst these categories of workers. These professional women workers also face no overt forms of harassment from male co-workers, though they work in a male-dominated environment. There is a high level of job satisfaction among these workers and being part of the labour force has had a very favourable impact on their personality development and self-fulfilment. These educated women have broken away from the traditional patriarchal family structure and enjoy an equal position in the household with their

spouses, as there is a high incidence of shared domestic responsibilities between husbands and wives. Due to their better status, education and higher incomes, these professional women workers do not face the problem of role conflict sharply and have been able to adjust with their domestic and office responsibilities.

✓ At the same time <sup>we</sup> find that these professional workers do face some problems in the workplace and at home. Though overt forms of harassment do not exist, there is subtle discrimination which is reflected in the superior attitude of male colleagues towards their female counterparts. Employers bias against female employees is also evident from the fact that they are hesitant in giving females positions of responsibility and major decision-making. This implies that the age old concept of male superiority has not been completely eroded. As females are recent entrants in the professional cadres, employers have been unable to provide them with some special facilities which are important for females to continue in the labour force and reduce role conflict. ✓ A major problem faced by them is that of child care. Creches are not made available by the employers and thus these women have to leave their children

with servants. These professional women workers are unable to join employees unions or take up positions of responsibility in the unions due to the combined burden of office and domestic work. Though husband's are sharing domestic responsibilities to some extent, still the burden of house work falls largely on the women resulting in an adverse effect on their health and also lack of leisure time.

The analysis of the problems faced by these professional workers highlights the need for attitudinal change both amongst males and females. We have observed that subtle discrimination and bias does exist even amongst this highly educated group. One way to remove this concept of male superiority would be possible if women start entering the professional cadres in larger numbers, specially in the non-traditional professions. Thus there is a need for more employment opportunities for women specially in private organisations where their representation is low and in male-dominated professions where the incidence of discrimination and bias is greater. This can be achieved by providing encouragement to women through publicity and media, and also by reservation of jobs for women in

Government institutions and by having some quota for women in technical and educational institutions, till they are substantially represented in the labour force.

There is an urgent need for employers to provide for creches near the workplace, this will enable professional women to continue in the labour force and further reduce role conflict. Provision of extended maternity leave and also paternity leave should be made for these workers to facilitate discontinuation of break in career for child rearing. Provision of paternity leave will also lead to a more egalitarian division of domestic responsibilities.

It would be desirable for these professional women workers to actively participate in union activities. This will enable them to pressurise the employers to provide for their special problems and needs. Participation in union activities will also enhance their status in the workplace as they will be <sup>on</sup> an equal footing with their male counterparts. They should also actively come forward to take up administrative responsibilities rather than shun them.

On the homefront there is a need for a more egalitarian sharing of domestic responsibilities and duties. This will help in easing the burden of domestic work for these full time professional workers and will also reduce the strain on health observed among these workers. Equal sharing of domestic duties will also facilitate a change in the attitude of both males and females regarding their traditional stereotype roles.

To conclude, to bring about a positive change in the status of women in the home, the workplace and the society, it is imperative that they are encouraged to join the professional cadres in large numbers. Only then they will be in a position to benefit from and contribute to the development of the nation on an equal footing with men.



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